The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 23, 1899.

The Week.

President McKinley's address to the Commercial Club in Boston contained a frank announcement that the protectionist "racket" is played out. "We have quit discussing the tariff," said Mr. McKinley, "and have turned our attention to getting trade wherever it can be found." With something dangerously like plagiarism from his predecessor in office, he added: "We have turned from academic theories to trade conditions, and are seeking our share of the world's markets." This is the very thing which the same eminent economist declared only eight short years ago would lead to national disaster. "The foreign market is delusory," was then his cry. It was the "poorest" of all markets, he said, because "in the foreign market the profit is divided between our own citizen and the foreigner, while with the trade and commerce among ourselves the profit is kept in our own family. If any one says, after reading that profound utterance, that Mr. McKinley in 1890 evidently knew nothing about foreign trade, we agree, with the addition that we do not think he does now either.

Clearly all that will be done by the present Congress regarding our policy towards the Philippines will be the ratification of the treaty, the appropriation of the $20,000,000 required to carry out one of its provisions, and some makeshift measure for keeping in the army during the next twelvemonth as large a force as the exigencies of the situation require. The $20,000,000 appropriation was ruled out of the Sundry Civil Bill in the House on a point of order on Thursday, but the course of the debate showed that the money would be voted in some way before the 4th of March. It would, of course, be ridiculous to force an extra session simply in order that the appropriation might be made after the 4th of March, instead of before. Indeed, Mr. Bailey, the Democratic leader, who is a member of the committee on rules, said that this committee would provide a way to meet the demand, and there would be no popular support of any opposition to such a provision. On Monday a separate bill carrying the appropriation passed the House without difficulty.

It is no pleasant prospect which the news from Manila holds out. The natives have taken to the jungle, where they feel perfectly at home, and ask us to come on. This is an old game of theirs. They have tried it on the Spaniards for years, and it seems the most natural thing in the world for them to begin it on the Americans. Gen. Otis has troops enough to hold his lines and repel all attacks with ease; but an aggressive campaign in the interior is out of the question. Even after reinforcements arrive, it will be impossible to hunt the natives down in detail without enormous loss of life. If they choose to go on fighting, we may have for a long time nothing better to offer to the world in the way of Philippine government than the Spanish did—that is, the coast towns held by force, and the interior left unexplored and uncontrolled. It is a great disappointment, undoubtedly, that the Filipinos have shown such a perverse determination to select the sauce with which they were to be eaten; but it should have been foreseen. "Why shall we not," asks Mr. Denby in the *Forum*—"why shall we not take the people of the Philippines kindly by the hand and lead them into the blessed light of perfect freedom?" Well, Mr. Denby and his fellow-commissioners are now nearing Manila, and will soon be in a better position to answer the question than any one at this distance. Seen from here, the principal difficulty in taking the Filipinos kindly by the hand is that they seize that particular occasion to stick a Malay creese into you.

Article 13, amending the Federal Constitution, declared that involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for a crime duly proved, shall not exist "in any place" subject to the jurisdiction of the United States. The Philippine archipelago will, by the treaty, be thus subject. In the secret documents relating to the treaty recently published there is, on page 369, in a report of the testimony given by Gen. Merritt before the Paris Commission, the following:

> Senator Davis—"Do you understand that a condition of slavery prevails which is described in that letter read?"
>
> Gen. Merritt—"Yes, sir; entirely as described by Mr. André."

André was highly commended by Merritt as having been in the Philippines fourteen years as Belgian Consul. His letter is on pages 386-389. It describes as generally prevailing the slavery forbidden by the Constitution of the United States. What is to be done with such slave labor? The majority of the Senate Republican leaders and lawyers contend, as Teller, Foraker, and Platt of Connecticut have contended, that the Philippines will not be under the thirteenth amendment till Congress shall so enact. Will Congress enact it? If Congress will not make the enactment, then can President McKinley, or his army officers, acting under the Constitution, uphold the slavery? Ought they not to destroy it wherever met? Which Spanish laws are, after the treaty has been ratified, to be enforced in the Philippines?

The earnest and unusual appeal of the War Department for the passage of the Hull army-reorganization bill, given out on Sunday, doubtless reflects the anxiety of the Administration lest it be caught without the necessary troops to carry out its Christian policy of civilizing the Filipinos by means of rifle and cannon. It is true, as the appeal states, that Senator Cockrell's compromise bill shows little of the expert's hand, and is lacking in many minor details, but the same is true of the Hull measure in a very large degree. The open confession that the latter was drawn solely by Adjutant-General Corbin and the officers of the department (nearly every one of whom would obtain promotion under it), without any aid from line officers, confirms a well-accepted belief in army circles, which led to its being received with grave suspicion, aside from its inherent faults and weaknesses. No progressive military reform bill could come to life in any Washington staff bureau to-day, because such a measure would begin by sweeping consolidation and effacement of those very bureaus which the Hull bill will strengthen and fortify to a remarkable degree. Yet these branches of the army are the very ones which were to blame for the delays and suffering of the last summer, and their present organization is one long since abandoned by all the Continental nations. The fact is, that if the army's reorganization is to depend upon hasty action taken within the next two weeks, nothing but wasteful, inefficient, ignorant and even corrupting legislation can be looked for. What is needed is an extra session, with plenty of time for the careful examination of a really scientific and far-seeing measure, and with no time for the hasty passage of some concoction of the discredited firm of Alger & Corbin.

The navy personnel bill, originally drawn a year ago by Gov. Roosevelt, has now passed both houses of Congress, and after minor conference changes will go to the President. A more radical alteration of the corps of officers could hardly be made, since the bill provides for promotion by selection, raises the pay to correspond to that of the army, and practically amalgamates the line and engineer officers. How this last change will affect the service can be known only after it has been tried for several years, since not even the English navy has as yet gone so far as to demand that the young officers must be trained engineers, as well as expert gunners, navigators, and fighters. The weak points of the re-

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organization are the provisions that when retirements and deaths do not annually provide twenty-five promotions to the lieutenant-commander's grade, a board of rear-admirals shall weed out the least efficient officers, who will then be forcibly retired. Whether this ever-changing board can be relied on to act in a judicial manner and to be free from the minor political influences which have hitherto made themselves felt in Washington naval circles, is a grave question. The principle, too, of retiring able-bodied officers, competent to be of considerable value to the Government, simply to make room for younger officers, establishes a new and dangerous precedent in our pension policy. The late war has proved that the present commanding officers, even if above the ideal age of command, have been fully qualified to perform all the duties asked of them. Whatever the outcome of this reorganization, nobody will deny that the navy has earned the right to try to improve itself still further, by its admirable bearing and conduct in the war, and by its splendid example of what can be done by a department of the Government from which the politicians are kept at bay.

We accept the confession of the "friends" of the Nicaragua Canal bill that it is dead for this session of Congress. Certainly they could devise no more irregular or desperate means of getting their cherished measure through by hook or crook than the one which they tried on Wednesday of last week in the House, only to meet with ignominious failure. If the rules of the House, devised to prevent sneak-thieving in connection with appropriation bills, are to be openly set aside in favor of grand larceny, there is an end of safeguarded legislation. No wonder the House drew the line at the revolutionary proposal of the "friends of the Nicaragua Canal" to fasten their measure as an amendment to the Sundry Civil Appropriation bill. When we say "friends of the Nicaragua Canal," we mean, of course, the people who want, not a canal, but a bill. Any old thing will do. In Heaven's name, pass a bill! Morgan's bill, Hepburn's bill, the Maritime Company's bill, the Cragin-Eyre bill, any one of them, any two of them dovetailed, all of them shuffled up together—pass any measure you will, only pass something. That is what the "friends" have been saying to Congress, and the reason is obvious. As Mr. Dockery warned the House, the same forces which are pushing the subsidies bill are pushing the crude, the impossible canal bills. They are the forces of corruption—what it is convenient to call the McKinley Syndicate. Senator Hanna frankly avowed their plan of campaign in angry talk to Mr. Cannon. In this halcyon time of expansion the Syndicate must grab all that was in sight. Subsidies, bounties, canal bills—anything would "go" if it was only labelled "expansion" or "greater America." The next Congress might be more particular or timid. Now was the time to seize everything, and what did Mr. Cannon mean by getting in the great Hanna's path? Well, behind Mr. Cannon there stood a burlier form than his. It is the Speaker of the House to whom the credit is due of having smashed the Syndicate.

Another step towards the abolition of liquor in the military and naval service of the nation has just been taken by the Navy Department. The canteen system that has existed in the army, by which beer was sold under the oversight of the military authorities, has never obtained a strong foothold in the navy; but there have been several vessels aboard which such sale was permitted, and there are now two such. An order has been issued by Secretary Long announcing that, after mature deliberation, the Department has decided that it is for the best interest of the service that the sale or issue to enlisted men of malt or other alcoholic liquors on board ships of the navy, or within the limits of naval stations, be prohibited; and forbidding commanding officers and commandants hereafter to allow any such liquor to be sold to or issued to enlisted men, either on board ship or within the limits of navy-yards, naval stations, or marine barracks, except in the medical department.

There is still a chance to save the next census from being wrecked. The bill which provides for that great enterprise passed the House with a section enacting that, in the selection of the statisticians, clerks, and other employees, the operation of the civil-service law, which would naturally apply to such places, should be suspended. The Senate has it in its power to amend the measure so that these thousands of positions shall be brought within the sphere of the merit system. It seems absurd that any argument should be required to demonstrate not only the wisdom of such a provision, but also its necessity, if the census is to be worth anything. Experience has shown the truth of this beyond the possibility of question. The rules were suspended in 1890 in the same way as is now proposed, and the result was that the Superintendent had to give the larger share of his time to the distribution of "patronage," and got such an inefficient set of subordinates that their work was largely worthless. The pending bill provides for "pass" examinations, and its advocates have claimed that such tests would be as valuable as competitive examinations; but the "pass" system was tried a decade ago, and it proved utterly worthless, alike as a method of getting efficient employees, and as a guard against the controlling influence of political considerations in appointments.

A Washington correspondent reports that the Republican leaders in Congress think that they have got hold of a new issue. They have "kept it dark" hitherto, but judge that the time has now come to reveal it. It is nothing less than a proposition, in accordance with the fourteenth amendment, to revise the basis of representation of the various States in the lower branch of Congress and in the electoral college, with a view to a radical reduction of the power exercised by the States which formerly used to be known as "the Solid South." Every State places some restriction upon the right of male citizens to vote; not one, for example, allowing an idiot to cast a ballot. Some States require the payment of a poll or other tax as a prerequisite to voting. Many States insist that a man shall be registered in order to vote. Several States, like Massachusetts in the North, and Mississippi, South Carolina, and Louisiana in the South, have established an educational qualification. These latter three States have constructed an elaborate system, of which the educational test is only a part, with the openly avowed design of disfranchising the larger part of the negroes who formerly voted. The practical operation of this system gives those Southern States whose colored population is large, Representatives in Congress and Presidential electors out of all proportion to the number of votes which they cast. As nearly all these Representatives and electors are invariably Democrats, the Republicans have a partisan motive for wishing to make a radical change.

The plan proposed is to find out the number of male citizens in every State whose right to vote is denied or in any way abridged, and reduce the Representatives and Presidential electors for each State in the proportion which the number of such male citizens bears to the whole number of its male electors. This would involve only slight changes in the North, but would revolutionize the representation of the States in the South, particularly the lower South. But how are you going to establish the fact of abridgment? A large proportion of the qualified white voters in Massachusetts and of the qualified black voters in the South do not go to the polls. The fact that they do not cast their ballots does not mean that their right to vote has been abridged in any way. It simply indicates that they do not care enough about the privilege to exercise it. It is futile to think of effecting through the fourteenth amendment what the fifteenth amendment has failed to secure, namely, protection against nullification of the right to vote "on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude." The Supreme Court has always

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shown a blind eye to evidence of such nullification.

Sanitation in Havana and Santiago has already, though incomplete, wrought wonders in stamping out infectious diseases and reducing the death-rate. There will necessarily be something of a relapse, however, when the rains come and find Havana without adequate sewerage. It is already too late to undertake the work this year; to have the streets torn up in the rainy season would be to invite worse horrors. This question of cleaning up old cities and conquering the plague after conquering the territory which it haunts, is one with which the English have had long and sorrowful acquaintance. "Year by year," says Kipling, "England sends out fresh drafts for the first fighting line which is officially called the Indian Civil Service. These die or kill themselves by overwork, or are worried to death or broken in health, in order that the land may be protected from death and sickness, famine and war, and may eventually become capable of standing alone. It will never stand alone, but the idea is a pretty one and men are willing to die for it." A recent number of the London *Lancet* gave a tragi-comic account of the efforts of an English surgeon to root out the plague in Malegaon. There was no hospital, so a rest-house in a Mussulman cemetery was converted into one, which, the surgeon wrote, "was very handy, for the cases usually die in five days." The dogged energy of the man in pursuing his course in the face of the ignorance and superstition and hostility and deception of the natives at last had its reward, and Malegaon became plague-free. But it was not till after the Englishman had had his house looted by the natives, and he himself had been smitten with the plague; in the end, however, the people fêted their deliverer.

Doubtless the most serious complication which Governor Roosevelt has to face in the way of a Black legacy is the financial condition of the State. It was brought out at the conference of Republican Senators on Thursday, that the deficits in the various State departments now aggregate about $453,000. It was also revealed that, in addition to spending the $9,000,000 special appropriation for canal improvements, with the work only half done, Aldrich entered into contracts for nearly $5,000,000 more of work, and that the State might be held liable for these. Then there is a special item of $1,500,000 for war expenses which must be paid. Part of this will be paid back ultimately by the national Government, but in the meantime it must be met by taxation. Here is a total of about $7,000,000 to be added to the State's expenditures for the year, and that means a perceptible increase in taxation. Thus the Roosevelt administration must be made to bear the burden of the shortcomings and misdeeds of the Black régime or starchless partisan orgy. If the special counsel, under the Governor's inspiration, can succeed in bringing Aldridge and Adams to book for their doings, the responsibility for the greater part of this burden will be placed where it belongs, squarely on the shoulders of Black and Platt. The people of the State can be trusted, in any event, to see that it is in no way chargeable to Gov. Roosevelt.

The assault of the Croker Government upon the Manhattan Elevated Railway Company gives that corporation the opportunity of its life. Let its managers come before the public with a full revelation of all their relations with Tammany in the past, setting forth the facts as a reason for refusing to yield any further to demands from that quarter. That would silence all Croker's fears and anxieties lest the company be not doing its full duty to the dear people. It would remove all his doubts about the artistic perfection of the elevated structure in Battery Park. It would quiet the qualms of President Mike Murphy and Dr. Feeny of the Health Board about the unhealthful influence of absorbent matting on the floors of the cars, and the danger to life from draughts through the lack of vestibules on the company's trains. The whole Croker "outfit" would find everything relating to the company's business in perfect condition on the mere threat of a revelation of this character. Why will not Messrs. Sage and Gould make such disclosure? Why not let us all know how it comes about that the extremely cordial relations which existed between Croker and the company when Mayor Van Wyck came in, are now so thoroughly disrupted? Only a little more than a year ago nothing was too good for Croker's agents to say of the elevated system. Croker's Mayor extolled it in his first message, and Croker himself spoke highly of it in his various public communications. What was the cause of these delightful relations then, and what has led to their discontinuance?

The public mind is in a very receptive mood on these points now. We may say, also, that it is in a more friendly mood toward the Manhattan Company than it has been for a long time. The vicious character of Croker's assault, combined with his obvious ingratitude for past favors, has created sympathy for the company. There is a general feeling that Croker has "gone too far." Then, too, he has timed his assault badly. We have just emerged from a most unusual test of our transit facilities, in which the elevated lines have demonstrated their great usefulness, not to say their superiority, in such crises, over all other methods which we have in use now. The people have had it brought home to them that, if we had not had the elevated lines, we should have been nearly deprived of the facilities of locomotion. They are no more convinced than heretofore that the elevated system is adequate for our needs, but they are convinced that until we have something better we cannot suffer any diminution in the accommodations which it offers. Our ruler should have waited until pleasant weather had come, say five or six weeks hence. His motives in making the attack would possibly have been questioned with as much interest then as they are now, but he would not have so alarmed the public about its own convenience. He should be able to see that the one thing he should avoid in the administration of the government is serious interference with the comfort of his subjects. He can rob and blackmail all he pleases, but he must not make life uncomfortable for us. There must be advisers about him who are shrewd enough to see this if he is not. The adviser was certainly shrewd, or else had a retentive memory, who reminded him of that Battery Park agreement upon which he could base his assault. Nobody believes that Croker himself remembered that this agreement was drawn in 1876, when William C. Whitney was Corporation Counsel. Mr. Whitney himself is so absorbed in the affairs of the Metropolitan Street Railway Company that it is doubtful if he remembered it himself till he saw Croker using it as a club. Had he been consulted, he would surely have advised against the assault at this time.

The French seem to be acting on the whole with great restraint and good sense in the crisis precipitated by the sudden death of President Faure. This will disappoint their enemies abroad as well as intriguers at home. It will also mystify a certain order of excited commentators on French affairs who have built up, for their own comfort, a pleasing sort of fiction about "Gallic" fickleness and folly. Things which would be incredible anywhere else they confidently predict for France; and if you ask why, their only answer is, "Oh, well, France, you know——" In particular are they given to foretelling a revolution in France. In favor of whom or how brought about, they will not say, but a revolution they insist upon having year after year. Now it need not be denied that French affairs take many unexpected turns, and that the safest prophets are those who arise after the event; but there have been signs for some time that the solid and conservative elements of the country were getting more and more in control of the situation. Their success in peacefully electing a suitable President in M. Loubet furnishes excellent reason for hoping that they may soon surmount their remaining political difficulties.

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THE PRESIDENT IN BOSTON.

It cannot be denied that Mr. McKinley's speech before the Home Market Club in Boston last Thursday was as shrewd as it was characteristic. There was not a spark of initiative or leadership in it. The President stood up before his fellow-countrymen, in this great crisis of our national life, to confess himself as perplexed and confused and ignorant as they, yet as hopeful also, as well-meaning, as ready to grin and bear it, to trust to luck to make all come out right in the end. These are not the arts of the great political orator, or the ways of the daring political leader, but they perfectly fit the assumed rôle of an expectant and obedient servant of the people. They hit the great average dulness between wind and water. "McKinley thinks just as I do," will be the complacent remark of the mass of his readers. Nine-tenths of mankind divide all thought into just two classes—"my idee exactly," and "humbug." Mr. McKinley is one of the rare public speakers who are able to talk a good deal of humbug in such a way as to make their average hearers think it excellent sense and exactly their idea.

His performance at Boston was all the more clever because he was confronted there by exceptional difficulties. He had to face past utterances of the Home Market Club, and its recent positive declarations against the policy of adventure in the Philippines, to the defence of which he devoted his speech. Worse than that, he had to face utterances and declarations of his own against that policy. When Mr. McKinley addressed the Home Market Club in 1888, he was the most home-keeping statesman in all the land. "Let England take care of herself, let France look after her interests, let Germany take care of her own people, but, in God's name, let Americans look after America!" That was then his eloquent cry. He was against any "entering wedge," such as the Home Market Club now asserts his policy of the "open door" to be, which "will in the end overthrow the entire edifice" of protection. As for going out to "invade the world's markets," no man could be hotter against that fatal policy than was Congressman William McKinley. Hear what he said, on April 24, 1890, would happen if we were to try doing precisely what we are doing under his direction:

> "If we would invade the world's markets, harsher conditions and greater sacrifices would be demanded of the masses. Talk about depression—we would [should] then have it in its fulness. We would [should] revel in unrestrained trade; everything would, indeed, be cheap, but how costly when measured by the degradation which would ensue. When merchandise is the cheapest, men are the poorest; and the most distressing experiences in the history of our country—aye, in all human history—have been when everything was the lowest and cheapest measured by gold, for everything was the highest and the dearest measured by labor. . . . With me this position is a deep conviction, not a theory."

With such awkward voices coming out of the past, it required, we say, no little address on the part of President McKinley to surmount the oratorical difficulties of his position in Boston. But he surmounted them by ignoring them. Not a word about trade or protection or the open door fell from his lips. Instead of charging up the hill, he made a wide détour, and appeared innocently unaware that there was any hill at all. This must have been something of a staggerer to the officers of the Home Market Club, who had been publicly remonstrating with the President for fatally wounding protection in the house of its friends by throwing the Philippines and Cuba and Porto Rico open to the trade of the world. They perhaps wondered how he could get out of this "corner." Bless their simple hearts, had they not read the *Tribune* on the extraordinary eloquence of Mr. McKinley's "silences"? "Corners" simply disappear when silence is dense enough. Difficulties must be impudent indeed if they continue to exist after being ignored.

As a master of significant silences, however, Mr. McKinley was not so successful when he came to speak of our liberating and civilizing mission in the Philippines. If he could only have ignored the volleys from those Filipino guns! But he could not, and their crackling disturbed some of his most touching periods. We were in Manila as "liberators" and "rescuers"—there was no doubt of that; but somehow we had only precipitated "a reign of terror," and the liberated natives were unaccountably engaged in shooting down their rescuers. Still, we were to go on and confer priceless blessings upon the "gems and glories of those tropical seas," and if "the misguided Filipino" did not appreciate or desire our presence, why, the "liberator" could not "submit important questions concerning liberty and government"—*their* liberty and government—to men whom it was necessary first to kill. Their children and grandchildren, as the President said, may "bless the American republic because it emancipated and redeemed their fatherland," but the present generation is in a fair way to be killed off in the process.

We dwell upon some of the examples of moral and political confusion in the President's speech, because they show us once more into what a false and humiliating position the country has been brought. Mr. McKinley said the best that can be said for the honest intentions and humane purposes of this country in taking over the Philippines. But no canting about humanity can cover up the frightful inconsistencies which mark our progress. We may be humane, but the Filipinos think us tyrannous. The situation in the islands is clearly pictured in a letter from its Manila correspondent in the *Evening Post* of Friday. He wrote a month before the armed collision, but the drift towards hostilities was unmistakable. The more the natives saw of the Americans, the less they liked them. They did not relish our ways, our manners, or our morals. They would draw no fine distinction between aggressors; and if the Americans were to do as the Spanish did, they would simply class both together in a common hatred. This is the enormous difficulty and inconsistency of our position. We are going where we are not wanted, to do what is not liked. We may be as pure of purpose as St. Francis and as humane in intention as St. Dominic; but if the natives have to be shot in order to be taught how good and benevolent we are, they cannot be greatly blamed for regarding all our humanity, even when tricked out in the flowers of Presidential rhetoric, as no better than the cruel tender mercies of the wicked.

THE DECLINE OF THE PORT.

We do not put this heading to this article to make a sensation, but simply to call the attention of our readers to a very important fact, the truth of which all admit—namely, that the business of the port of New York is and has long been declining, and that nothing is being done to arrest its decline, while much continues to be done to hasten it. Two or three years ago the subject was taken up by the Chamber of Commerce, which for a little while talked a good deal about it, and gave forth much speculation about its causes. The cause of the decline of a port must always be a subject of mere speculation. The business of a port consists in the number of ships which bring cargoes to it and take them away from it. Every one is entitled to his own opinion as to the reason for which this business improves or falls off. The Chamber of Commerce, on the occasion referred to, clung fast to the belief that it was the badness of the channel which did it; and our suggestion that it was bad government seemed almost to throw a great many of the Chamber into a rage, so reluctant were they to cast any imputation on our rulers. The best authorities on this question would be the people who have ceased to send their goods here. We may be sure that as long as merchants are desirous of sending goods here, ship-owners will be glad to carry them. We have not yet heard of a single ship-owner who has withdrawn his vessels on account of the channel. When the big steamers keep up their traffic we may feel pretty sure that the channel trouble is not serious, and that smaller vessels have no real difficulty in keeping up *their* traffic.

The great difficulty in dealing with the question is that the persons who could throw most light on the subject and know most about its causes, are terrorized, as nearly everybody in New York

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is, by an authority of some sort. Shippers are terrorized by the custom-house; ship-owners are terrorized both by the health officers and by the custom-house, while everybody is afraid of Tammany; and there is, of course, therefore, a general desire to throw the blame on somebody or something else, preferably something inanimate like a channel, which will avoid the necessity of blaming somebody who can hit back or inflict vengeance. The custom-house trouble has been becoming worse and worse as the tariff fever has grown. The desire for more duties has naturally magnified the office of custom-house inspector as the man who collects the tariff, and the rights and the comfort of citizens who pay have become of less importance. Our custom-house has been absolutely converted from an office for the collection of duties into an office for discouraging foreign travel, and for controlling people in the purchase of their clothes and their manner of spending their summer. More astounding, too, this is done on the instigation not of leading citizens, merchants, manufacturers, lawyers, or even influential politicians, but of scrubby little tailors or variety men who find their custom short, and actually are able to get the Government to help them persecute and annoy their leading fellow-citizens. Well, knowing what they are up to, it legislates for their benefit, and allows them to plant salaried spies on the wharves to discredit and humiliate its own officers, when the proper course for a great government would have been to allow its officers to throw the spies into the river. This would have been illegal, possibly cruel, but it would have exhibited pride. Finally, when charged with helping the tailors, the Assistant Secretary of the Treasury denies it all, and pretends that the legislation was for the promotion of "morality." When one groups a lot of these things together, who would suppose the United States passed much of its time on "glory-crowned heights," or was even a wholesale dealer?

The whole management of the custom-house is infected with the same picayune character. One of the marks of a great nation is the practice of doing things above board, revealing its intentions openly, and defying criticism. People who go to Europe in summer are no more bound to support New York tailors than any other class of the community. Very few of them can afford to support a tailor. Very few tailors deserve to be supported by anybody else. An honest government which thought tailors should be supported by any species of coercion, would have said so. It would not have allowed tailors who were desirous of compelling other people to support them to masquerade as promoters of revenue; it would have put the desire of tailors to be supported in the preamble of the bill, as its true cause.

Then see how it treats its own citizens, who make no complaint, who ask nothing but their constitutional right to go and come, and follow lawful callings, and bear no more than legal burdens. It finds that its inspectors on the wharf are unfaithful to their trust. So, instead of compelling them by law to examine baggage honestly, and increasing their number so as to make the passage of the custom-house by travellers prompt and easy, it falls foul of the passenger, and compels him to submit to the most humiliating ceremony of modern times. It compels him to swear to what he has in his baggage, and then immediately announces it does not believe him by examining the baggage and treating the passenger's "forgetfulness," or "absorption of mind," as presumptively criminal, to be explained before an officer called the Deputy Surveyor, who is armed with judicial powers to pass on the wharf on the honesty of the passenger's intentions, condemn him without jury, and confiscate his property! Are Americans grown so sheeplike that this oath can continue to be administered, without purpose or remonstrance, year after year, and made the basis of a charge of fraud by an officer without legal education, or, for all the passenger knows, without character? Will nobody get the power to administer it for *the purpose of convicting citizens of perjury*, legally tested? It may be right or expedient to administer it to a trader about the goods he is importing, but to administer it to a man who is simply seeking to reach his home with his personal baggage, and make him wait for hours in order to take it, is one of the most grotesque outrages ever perpetrated in a free country.

The duty of custom-house officers in such a country is not to lay traps for travellers, or trouble or detain them, or throw their effects out on the dirty wharf. It is to examine them as fully and fairly as possible. A government has a right to say how much clothing a traveller may bring in with him free of duty, and has a right to ascertain how much he has brought in, and make him pay on it; but it ought to calculate whether the sum of money it gets from the process is worth the delay, annoyance, and trouble to which it has to subject the citizen. This is the question which runs through the whole subject of import duties. Is the result of the tax worth the cost of collecting it, whether it be in money or vexation? We have no doubt every passenger would pay $25 to avoid being stripped on the wharf, but would the result make it worth while to strip him? Tailors have no more claim on the state than other people. Make Jones pay his taxes, but there is no "moral" duty to make him pay if the tax is too small to be worth collection. If your force of inspectors is too small, enlarge it. If it is dishonest, dismiss it. If it is efficient, cling to it. But do not attack private citizens because you do not know how to manage your own business.

THE NEW QUESTION IN ENGLAND.

The controversy with the ritualists in England continues and grows. Sir William Harcourt has for some months been engaged in a discussion with the bishops, in which he has completely overthrown them. His point was, that they could put an end to the ritualistic vagaries if they chose, that the law gave them full powers. They regretted the ritualism, but maintained they could not stop it, first, because they had no legal power; second, because the ritualistic parsons were few in number; third, because they were numerous and valuable; and fourth, because many of their practices were really permitted in the prayer-book, but had fallen into desuetude.

By disposing of the first of these pleas, Sir William really made short work of all the others. In his last letter he cited two cases, one before the old Arches Court previous to its abolition more than twenty-five years ago, but the other in 1883, in which parsons, on the bishops' prosecution, had been deprived of their livings for departures from the ritual as prescribed in the prayer-book. He showed clearly enough that there was abundant law for the bishops' interference with the very practices which are now going on in so many churches in England, and the only reason that will bear examination why they are not stopped, is the bishops' refusal to interfere. The question why they refuse is receiving various answers, but the favorite one is that they really sympathize with the ritualists themselves, either because they agree with them on points of doctrine, or because they consider the ritualistic clergy so valuable as a religious influence on the masses, particularly in the great cities, that they shrink from driving them away from the church.

Lord Salisbury has assigned a reason for the bishops' inactivity which has probably a good deal of truth in it, viz., that they dread the expense of clerical prosecutions. We have been assured by one of them that it costs him at least three thousand dollars out of his own pocket to prosecute even what is called a "criminous clerk," guilty of immorality, where the case is plain. Prosecutions on points of doctrine cost even more, because they involve long arguments by crack counsel, learned in church law. Now bishops are human. Their incomes, though apparently large, are not so, considering the demands upon them. Custom requires them to live in a certain style, and the amount of hospitality which they have to bestow is a terrible burden. Their charities, too, are very large. On the whole, therefore, they may be considered poor men as far as their

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official income is concerned, and but few of them have private fortunes. A year ago a bill was introduced in Parliament providing that they might receive the cost of prosecutions of offending clergymen from another church fund, but it was withdrawn at their unanimous request, because they did not wish to appear to be saving their own pockets at the expense of another worthy object. They generally have families, too, and one of the curious anomalies of the English church is that, though the church is a state institution, they are expected to keep it sound and respectable out of their own money. Everything has been done in times past to make them consider a bishopric a good thing from a worldly point of view, and yet they are now expected to act as if the worldly side of the office were of no consequence.

They are now, however, apparently left without excuse for not acting. Harcourt having demolished their legal defence, they are brought face to face with the popular feeling, which is strong. And it is strong for more than religious reasons. The democratic wave has naturally not rolled so long in England, and taken away the county government from the fathers and brothers of the parsons, without reaching the churches. The old doctrine that the church and churchyard were the parson's freehold, has been shaken to its base. It is not many years since some of the parsons were disposed to resist even the act of Parliament which allowed people, under certain restrictions, to have other than Episcopal burial services in the churchyards, over their own dead. One parson wrote to Archbishop Tait that he would meet with a pitchfork the first Dissenting funeral procession which came to his churchyard. That has all gone by. The democracy, having got hold of the state, is now disposed to deal drastically with the church also, and cut down the parson's powers as well as the squire's.

Consequently, there is a good deal more than either ritual or theology in the present movement. The independence of the clergy offends a great many people who care nothing about the ritual, and the tendency of the ritualistic movement is greatly to exalt the power of the clergy. In fact, to all intents and purposes, it makes them the "church," and gives the laity hardly anything to do except genuflect. This the masses in England are not disposed to stand. The relations between the country people and their parson are rarely cordial. Under the old régime the parson was apt to meddle a good deal, and take a good deal on himself in virtue of his social position and his property in the church and glebe, and he could not do so for long years without breeding a good deal of resentful feeling. It is mainly in the towns among the "residuum" that the ritualistic clergy have made way. In the country towns the masses are apt to dissent, and in the country they growl a good deal at the parson.

This is, therefore, not a lucky time at which to push a Romanizing movement and spread "priests" all over the country once more. Some one, in writing to the *Times* about the matter, recalls a passage from Froude in which he speaks of the terrible mistakes of the Catholic reaction after the Council of Trent. Instead of trying to come to terms with the Protestant revolt, it became more arbitrary, uncompromising, and ferocious than ever, and we had the massacre of St. Bartholomew, the Dutch war, the Dragonnades, and so on. The result was savage hatred of the church in the leading countries of the world. This is now dying out, but instead of still further fostering kindly or tolerant feelings towards the pretensions of the church, the ritualistic clergy are making demands on credulity which the public rejected three hundred years ago, when it was twenty times more credulous than it is now and had twenty times as much respect for priests as it has now, and when the clergy had an intellectual preëminence which they have lost.

THE PRE-IMPERIAL JOSEPHINE.

PARIS, January 26, 1899.

The indefatigable M. Frédéric Masson gives us a new volume on the first wife of Napoleon. It is entitled 'Joséphine de Beauharnais' and deals with her only before she became the wife of General Bonaparte. M. Masson has hitherto been occupied chiefly with the Empress; he gave to the public the end of his long and patient study before its beginning. Many parts of the present volume have appeared in fragments in reviews, but we have now before us the whole of Josephine's existence from 1763 to 1796; and strange and romantic as her after life was, her early life is in one sense no less interesting.

When the ceremony of Napoleon's coronation occurred, when the new Cæsar took the crown from the hands of the Pope to place it himself on his head, when he felt surrounded by all the pomp of the court of his own creation, he turned for a moment to his brother Joseph, and, remembering his early days, asked, "What would our father say if he saw us now?" Josephine might well have made the same reflections: the contrast between her new and her former life was as great, and, in one sense, perhaps greater, for if there was much to explain and justify the glorification, the apotheosis of the new Cæsar—if a hundred victories surrounded him with a prestige which was felt by all—what was there to explain the ascent of Josephine into the region of historical greatness? She had a single title to it: she had been distinguished and chosen by Napoleon, and she had been loved by him. Napoleon often said of himself, "Je ne suis pas tendre," and he gave sufficient proofs of it. He was *tendre* towards Josephine, and towards her alone; he felt for her a genuine passion, which he never afterwards felt for any other woman, and this is why Josephine will always interest the psychologist as well as the historian.

"This woman," says M. Masson, "played in the sentimental life of the General, the Consul, the Emperor, the chief part. Her action was not foreign to decisions which he took; and in order to explain certain tendencies of his mind, certain states of his imagination and his heart, it is necessary to know exactly who she was, how she thought, where she came from, and what became of her. In most if not all of the books which have been written about her, one finds only imbecile legends, interested praises, voluntary errors, a lot of idle declamation, proving nothing and explaining nothing; in the place of facts, epithets; in the place of dates, adjectives. I have found it necessary to go over this life as a judge would have done; to preserve of all that has been printed only serious, authentic documents, coming from the contemporary parties concerned; to group round these documents those which I owe to my personal researches; and, of the collection so formed independently of any preconceived idea, without any sentiment of flattery or of complacency, to disengage the woman, her life, her acts, her character, her spirit."

In 1726, Gaspard-Joseph Tascher de la Pagerie went to Martinique in quest of fortune. He belonged to an old and poor family; he married a Mademoiselle de la Chevalerie, and had three daughters. One of them, Marie-Euphémie-Désirée, succeeded in being attached to the household of the Governor of the French islands, M. de Beauharnais. The Governor had among the officers of his staff a M. Renaudin, who fell in love with Mademoiselle de la Pagerie and offered to marry her. Renaudin's parents opposed the marriage, but not because of Euphemia's poverty. "The ill-behavior of her father, his disordered affairs, and the reproaches which were publicly levelled in the island against Mlle. de la Pagerie for having obtained on several occasions, through her standing with M. and Madame de Beauharnais, favors which excited much discontent," were the reasons alleged by the family. On the death of the elder Renaudin, the mother withdrew her opposition; the marriage took place, and the power of the young Madame Renaudin became greater than ever at the little court of the Governor. M. de Beauharnais gave great dissatisfaction to the inhabitants of the island; he was recalled and replaced. He left for France in 1761, with his wife and a young child. M. Renaudin remained in the colonies; Madame Renaudin left with her father for France. There was no legal separation between her and her husband, and she retained all the legal advantages which she had received by contract from her husband. While he was Governor, M. de Beauharnais procured a good match for a brother of Madame Renaudin, Joseph-Gaspard de la Pagerie. This young La Pagerie was married by a Capuchin curate of Trois-Ilets to Mlle. des Vergers de Sannois, of a good nobility of Brie. He was Lieutenant of Artillery and of the coast-guard. Josephine was one of the three children of M. de la Pagerie. She was born on June 23, 1763—a Frenchwoman, since at that date the island was in possession of the French. La Pagerie was put on half-pay and pensioned; he had a powerful patron at Versailles in the person of M. de Beauharnais, who was in high favor and had been made a Marquis.

On her arrival in France, Madame Renaudin first took an apartment of her own, but after a short time she began to live openly under the same roof with M. de Beauharnais. Madame de Beauharnais retired to her mo-

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ther's house at Blois, and came only occasionally to Paris. She died October 5, 1767, and from that day Madame Renaudin became completely the mistress of M. de Beauharnais's house. She kept under her sway not only Beauharnais, but his son Alexander, who had remained behind at Martinique; she formed the project of marrying Alexander to one of her relations on the island. M. de la Pagerie was very poor; a storm had ruined his home and his plantation. He had to live with his children in the sugar-factory. It was there that Josephine was brought up, a child of nature, idle, lazy, among negro women who idolized her, obeyed her in everything, and looked upon her as a superior being. M. Masson shows her learning to become a coquette in solitude and in complete independence, without any but negro society, without any intellectual, moral, or religious culture, with a mother, grandmother, and aunts as ignorant and lazy as herself. At the age of ten she was put to school at Fort-Royal in the house of the Dames de la *Providence*. Towards her fifteenth year, her education was considered ended, and she returned home.

"Are we to believe that, at that period, Tercier, then Captain in the regiment of Martinique, who flatters himself not to have been indifferent to her, does not lie, on that page of his memoirs? Ought we to retain something of the strange story of that Englishman who, in the prime of his youth, knew and loved Josephine, who remained faithful to her memory, who would never marry, and who, in 1814, having become a general, wrote to the Empress, who remembered him and asked him to dinner at the Malmaison? But, on the day fixed, the Empress was ill, in bed, and the Englishman never saw her again."

Alexander de Beauharnais came back to France and was educated with the two nephews of the Duke de la Rochefoucauld in the ducal castle of La Roche-Guyon. Mme. Renaudin, who was his godmother, never lost sight of him. The children of Beauharnais had inherited a good fortune from their mother; she planned a marriage between young Alexander and one of her nieces. Alexander was appointed lieutenant at the age of nineteen, and took the title of Viscount; he had 40,000 livres a year from his mother and more expectations (*espérances* is the classical word in French). Mme. Renaudin did not care which of her nieces Alexander should marry; owing to various circumstances, Josephine was chosen. At the first interview between her and her future husband, he does not seem to have been much pleased. He was only nineteen, but Mme. Renaudin lost no time, and, the contract having been made in due form, the marriage took place on the 13th of December, 1779, in the little church at Noisy-le-Grand, where Mme. Renaudin had bought a country house. The young couple established themselves in the hôtel of the Marquis de Beauharnais, in Paris. Josephine made the acquaintance of her new aunt, Fanny de Beauharnais, a literary woman, "who," says M. Masson, "gave herself to letters chiefly to find lovers; who had had Dorat, Boissy, and Ginguené before falling as low as Cubières; who, though her husband was generally known as an honest and good man, . . . surrounded herself with such persons as Restif de la Brétonne, Mercier, etc." Fanny de Beauharnais's books have been preserved from utter oblivion only by the illustrations of Moreau le Jeune and Marillier. She was born Mouchard, was a *fille de finance*, and her poems seem to have been written chiefly in order that she might dedicate them to her fine relations. Such a person could not have a very good influence on young Josephine. Her daughter married the eldest brother of Alexander, and was herself a distinguished and respectable person, but she had as little as possible to do with Mme. Renaudin, and, in consequence, saw very little of Josephine.

The young creole was, in fact, quite abandoned. The Viscount soon left her to join his regiment; he wrote her letters which read more like those of a schoolmaster than of a husband. He had, he said, formed the plan of "recommencing her education." Josephine, in his absence, had a child on September 3, 1781, who was named Eugène Rose (the future Prince Eugene). Josephine was soon afterwards again *enceinte*. She informed her husband of it at the very moment when he was at Brest, on the point of starting for Martinique, which was threatened by the English. The second child was born April 10, 1783, in Paris, and named Hortense Eugénie (the future Queen Hortense).

What news did Viscount Beauharnais receive at Martinique? He heard only in June that he had a second child; in July he writes to his wife a letter the text of which is given by M. Masson—a very insulting letter, in which he accuses her of misconduct before her marriage with M. de B——, an officer of the regiment at Martinique; with M. d'H——. "I don't ask you to repent," he says; "you are incapable of that, as a woman who, on the point of departure, embraces a lover, knowing that she is destined for another, has no soul; she is lower than the worst *coquines*." He tells her in this letter that he will never again remain under the same roof with her, and orders her to retire at once to a convent and there await his return. The stories which Beauharnais heard in the island were probably only a pretext for a rupture; he took a mistress, lived publicly with her, and sent her to France to await him in Paris.

When the Viscount returned to Paris, Madame Renaudin tried to obtain a reconciliation, but in vain. Josephine took rooms at the Abbey of Panthemont (now given to the French Reformed Church), which was then an asylum for ladies of rank who found themselves in awkward circumstances. An arrangement took place, in virtue of which Josephine and Alexander were to live separately; Josephine was to receive a pension of 5,000 livres; Hortense was to remain with her and to receive an annuity of 1,000 livres till she was seven, and of 1,500 livres afterwards. Eugene was to remain till he was five years old with his mother, and was to be given to his father afterwards. The Viscount had to make the most ample excuses for the letters which he had written from Martinique, in a moment of anger, and to declare his accusations, founded on idle reports of servants and mulattoes, to be absolutely groundless. Josephine may thus be said to have come out of the struggle with all the honors of war.

Correspondence.

RULES FOR UNDERMINING A FLOURISHING REPUBLIC.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A century and a quarter ago, a certain illustrious American, resident in London as agent for Pennsylvania and several of her sister colonies, drew up and published a set of "Rules for Reducing a Great Empire to a Small One." These rules were several times reprinted, received a wide circulation, and met with much favor from an appreciative sovereign and his obedient ministry and compliant Parliament. Indeed, so closely were they followed that within a very few years his Britannic Majesty found himself eased of the larger part of his transatlantic possessions—at a total expense of only a few millions of pounds and a few thousands of lives.

My friend, Mr. Ichabod Hackney, has submitted to me, with a view to possible publication, a brief set of "Rules for the Undermining and Ultimate Overthrow of a Flourishing Republic," which I beg to lay before you, being myself not well assured whether they be worthy of publication, or, from their all too manifest inferiority to the famous "Rules" after which they are evidently modelled, more fit for consignment to the waste-paper basket. In any event, Mr. Hackney does not presume to hope that his rules will meet with such favor in high quarters, or be adopted with such speedy and signal results, as was the case with those written for his Britannic Majesty's benefit. They may serve, however, as a first rough draft of certain precepts calculated to promote a most worthy end, and subject to such farther elaboration, improvement, and additions as may occur to abler and more experienced publicists and writers than my friend Ichabod.

Rule 1. For chief magistrate of the republic which it is designed to undermine and, if possible, destroy, let some thorough-going opportunist be raised to power by the aid of a syndicate of men possessed of large means and an ardent thirst for still greater wealth. To this syndicate, which must, moreover, be intimately familiar with the workings of destiny, the chief magistrate is to look for guidance and direction on all occasions.

Rule 2. Let this chief magistrate studiously disregard the issues on which he was chosen by the people, and speedily forget his ante-election promises to the country. If, for example, currency reform and the relief of a depleted Treasury were the issues of his campaign, let him set about emptying the nation's coffers entirely; and if he give his undivided attention to the attainment of so desirable an end, he will of necessity have no time whatever to devote to currency reform.

Rule 3. To hasten the accomplishment of the purpose mentioned in the rule immediately preceding, let no opportunity for engaging in war be neglected, as it is well known that warfare is the most expensive of national pastimes. If an occasion offers for purchasing the privilege of joining in this divertisement, so much the better, for the ultimate expense is thereby greatly increased. The purchase of a ready-made insurrection at the antipodes is an ideal mode of promoting the end in view.

Rule 4. Conquest, expansion, and militarism, which proved of such efficacy in bringing the Roman Republic to an end, and in finally hastening the downfall of the Empire, should be the nation's watchwords. With the traditions and fundamental principles of a flourishing republic and a country long regarded as in very truth the cradle of liberty, no policy could be more utterly at variance than one of forcible annexation

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of conquered peoples; hence its peculiar fitness for the purpose in hand.

Rule 5. To insure the better observance of the foregoing rules, let the utmost possible power be lodged in the Chief Executive and his syndicate. The Legislature will thereby be relieved of much anxiety, and the minds of the people prepared for that centralized or despotic form of government so likely to follow in the train of conquest and militarism. Nothing can better fit them for its final acceptance than a frequent exercise, on the part of the Executive, of prerogatives either rightfully his or assumed by him to be so—as, for example, proclamations to inferior races whom we purpose annexing, or the retention of an unworthy minister, or interposition on behalf of a disgraced military officer, and his retirement on full pay until such time as he may be entitled to retire with honor on half-pay.

Mr. Hackney is prepared to furnish additional rules bearing on the numerous details sure to present themselves in executing so great a reform; but it seems unwise to trespass further on your courtesy at present.—Very truly yours,

PERCY F. BICKNELL.

MALDEN, MASS., February 18, 1899.

THE SPANISH CONQUEST.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Prof. W. G. Sumner's thesis, that we have not conquered Spain, but have been conquered by Spain, suggests the story of King Zohak.

"King Zohak [says Macaulay, quoting Southey] gave the devil leave to kiss his shoulders. Instantly two serpents sprang out, who, in the fury of hunger, attacked his head and attempted to get at his brain. Zohak pulled them away, and tore them with his nails. But he found that they were inseparable parts of himself, and that what he was lacerating was his own flesh."

It seems to me that Uncle Sam, in attacking Spain, gave the devil leave to kiss his shoulders.

A. F. H.

GRANVILLE, O., February 3, 1899.

MR. KIPLING'S CALL TO AMERICA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The cable informs us that "Kipling's stirring verses, the 'Call to America,' have created a profound impression" on your side. What that impression may be, we can only conjecture. They profoundly impress many of us here as first-class specimens of cant, to which one of the examples, drawn from Dryden, given by Johnson as an example of the proper use of the word cant, aptly applies:

> "Of promise prodigal, while pow'r you want,
> And preaching in the self-denying cant."

There is something almost sickening in this "imperial" talk of assuming and bearing burdens for the good of others. They are never assumed or held where they are not found to be of material advantage or ministering to honor or glory. Wherever empire (I speak of the United Kingdom) is extended, and the climate suits the white man, the aborigines are, for the benefit of the white man, cleared off or held in degradation for his benefit. Where the climate does not suit us, and the natives are in too advanced a condition to be cleared off, the first consideration (at least with the majority, men of Mr. Kipling's turn of mind) is our material advantage and honor and glory. We are in a precious hurry to lay burdens down when they do not pay, as in the case of our solemn obligations to the Armenians. We are ever ready to shirk them, as in the case of the status of our Indian fellow-subjects in our colonies, when the bearing of the burden of seeing fair play done would be inconvenient. In so far as is compatible with our interests and honor and glory, we have perhaps made the interest of "natives" under our rule of higher and more enduring consideration than that recorded of any other conquering and governing Power. But this talk of burdens is, as I have said, unadulterated cant.

Taking India as a test, no one moves a foot in her government that is not well paid and pensioned at her cost. No appointments are more eagerly contended for than those in the Indian service. A young man is made for life when he secures one. The tone of that service is by no means one "bound to exile," "to serve . . . captives' need," "to wait in heavy harness," or in any degree as expressed in Mr. Kipling's highfalutin lines. It is entirely the contrary: "You are requested not to beat the servants" is a not uncommon notice in Indian hotels. The most refined and educated natives with three-fourths of British officials narrowly and not indeed always escape the appellation of "D——d niggers." Much of England's wealth is derived from the connection with India. She is one of the richest countries in the world (average income, £40 per head); India one of the poorest (average income, thirty shillings). If there were any reality in a united, equally considered empire and of the white man bearing burdens, it would be shown in relation to her. But no—India is made to pay to the last farthing in all questions of common account. She was made to pay for the erection of that palatial India Office in Whitehall; she has had to pay for a state ball given to the Sultan of Turkey in London; she is made to pay even for the training in England of British troops sent out to govern her—of course for their transit, maintenance, and pay in India. So anxious are we, where good pay is concerned, to save Indians the heavy burden of enjoying them, that, while our sons can study and pass at home for Indian appointments, her sons must study and pass in England; and even in India itself whites are afforded chances closed to natives. You are told to go abroad and "Fill full the mouth of famine." Within the last three years we have had the worst famine of the century in India—some eight million perished of disease and starvation. The heroic efforts to combat it have been, with the exception of voluntary contributions, at the expense of India, and have added to her debt. It is impossible to gauge the eventual inevitably impoverishing effect upon India of the millions of pounds annually drawn from her and, under the heads of salaries, pensions, home charges, and army and navy construction, spent in Great Britain.

There never was a fostered trade and revenue resulting in more disastrous consequences to humanity than the opium trade and revenue. There never was a more grinding and debilitating tax than that on salt (it would be a criminal offence in India for a poor woman to evaporate from sea water the smallest grain of it). Upon any principle of clearing our consciences and "taking up white man's burdens," we might assume both, and none of us eat a mouthful less or enjoy a moment's less real happiness. By none have such suggestions been laughed to greater scorn than by men of the Kipling cast of mind. And what nice feeling he displays towards your future fellow-citizens—"New-caught sullen peoples, half devil and half child," "Sloth and heathen folly," "Silent sullen peoples," etc. Surely you are not to be egged on to the relinquishment of all your best traditions by such impudent Pharisaical rhyming. Since 1862 you have enjoyed institutions as perfect as man has yet contrived them; let some in their application misuse and degrade them as they may. Here, through old traditions and foreign complications, each one of us is made responsible for unfairnesses and villanies of many kinds. You and we have each to clear ourselves from our several reproaches and work out our destinies as best we may, with all humility and searchings of spirit. In deliberately entering upon our courses, you would jeopardize all the principles in which you lead, without possessing the traditions and experiences rendering it likely you would improve upon the methods by which we have so faultily led.—Sincerely yours,

ALFRED WEBB.

DUBLIN, February 7, 1899.

TOYNBEE'S DANTE DICTIONARY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Having had a pretty wide experience of reviewing, both as author and critic, I am not much in favor of protests on the part of the reviewed. But when a reviewer deliberately goes out of his way to disparage by anticipation a book which has not been submitted to him for criticism, as the writer of the review of my 'Dante Dictionary' in the *Nation* of January 12 has done, I think the author may reasonably be allowed to protest.

Your reviewer expresses his doubts as to my competence to deal with the "etymological side" of the Italian vocabulary of Dante's works, on the ground that I assign *hoc-ille* as the origin of the French word for "yes," which he finds to be "not quite reassuring." If ignorance of etymology is to be imputed, let it be imputed to the proper quarter. In this case, it is not I, but your reviewer, who displays either ignorance, or what, under the circumstances, would be worse, disingenuousness. *Hoc-ille* (to preserve the classical equivalent of *il*, for which it would have been mere pedantry in a Dante Dictionary to substitute the vulgar Latin form) is the accepted origin of O. F. *oïl*, as your reviewer may convince himself by a reference to Arsène Darmesteter's 'Cours de Grammaire Historique de la Langue Française' (Part ii., p. 177; Paris, 1897). If unaware of this fact, the reviewer is himself convicted of ignorance; if aware of it, he has most unfairly imputed ignorance to me, and in so doing has passed by anticipation a damaging criticism upon my projected work. I may observe that his assumption that the "etymological side" of Dante's Italian vocabulary will be dealt with in my forthcoming 'Dante Vocabulary' is wholly gratuitous.

It is impossible for me, even if it were desirable, to carry on a literary controversy across the Atlantic in a journal which I can only see at rare intervals. I can but express the hope that your reviewer will, in common

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fairness to me, withdraw the uncalled-for insinuation against which I have protested.

Trusting that you will do me the justice of inserting this letter, I am, sir, yours faithfully, PAGET TOYNBEE.

DORNEY WOOD, BUCKS, ENGLAND, January 27, 1899.

[We were not ignorant of the information supplied by Mr. Toynbee. It would require too much space to explain here why his form of statement is unsatisfactory. With no desire to give offence to the author of a Dictionary whose merits we cheerfully recognized, we conceived it not improper to express a hope that so important a work as a Dante Vocabulary, likely to be undertaken once for all, might be fortified at all points. If Mr. Toynbee intends to neglect the etymological side altogether, our well-meant caution was superfluous. —ED. NATION.]

LICENSE IN GERMAN POETRY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The question of license in rhyme is probably as old as the art of rhyming and the profession of the critic. It is rather curious to remember, in connection with Prof. Newcomer's interesting letters on "License in English Rhyme," that the Germans, with all their tendency to exhaust any subject which concerns them at all, have never troubled themselves greatly about the culpability of their poets in the matter of impure rhymes. This I believe to be true both as to the theories of the teachers of prosody in the class-room and the practice of the poets themselves. The maxim, "Singe, wem Gesang gegeben," has guided their poets, and their schoolboys have imbibed a veneration for the songs of Goethe, Schiller, Heine, and Uhland which, if somewhat uncritical, has been all the more inspiring.

It is true that the whole subject is simplified in Germany by the very much greater elasticity of the German language as compared with the English, by the latitude given to provincial differences of pronunciation, and the absence of those idiosyncrasies of orthography which, in the English language, make it possible to "rhyme" *bough* with *enough*. Theoretically, German poetry is perhaps nearly as full of impure rhymes as English—Goethe, Schiller, and Heine teem with rhymes like *Gehör, mehr; Gäste, Feste; prüfen, Tiefen; Gewinnst, Dienst; Schosse, Lose; heulen, Weilen; spriessen, grüssen; Sehnen, Thränen.* But practically such rhymes are considered pure. Indeed, it may be doubted whether Schiller, the Suabian, would not have been prepared to defend *Sehnen* and *Thränen* as a perfectly legitimate rhyme. (The argument of a "rhyme to the eye," to which Prof. Newcomer is disposed to allow some slight weight in English, does not, in my opinion, appeal to Germans.) A Berliner will recognize the difference in sound in *Sehnen* and *Thränen*, and a Hanoverian will render the umlaut in *Thränen* with even greater clearness; but probably no German anywhere pronounces the word as it is pronounced on the best German stage, say the Vienna Burgtheater or the Hamburg Thaliatheater. No critic challenges this or any of the above rhymes as objectionable, and even Schiller's *Röthe, Städte; Blösse, Gekröse; verödet, getödtet*, pass muster. The *tours de force* which Heine indulges in more frequently than any other German poet—his *entled'ge, Komödie; Kaiser, heiss'er; Glanze, Renaissance; Balaam's, Abraham's*, etc.—are enjoyed for their comic effect, but neither particularly admired nor condemned. Even simple assonance, which plays such an important part in the Volkslied, has found a legitimate place in modern German poetry through Goethe, Tieck, Chamisso, Uhland, Rückert, and others. Goethe's *Floh* and *Sohn*, in "Es war einmal ein König," is perhaps the best known example of such assonance.

It may be said that the Germans have taken an eminently common-sense view of this matter. They will tell you that Platen is perhaps their greatest master of form, and that his poems contain hardly an impure rhyme; and they read his perfect stanzas occasionally from a sense of duty, while they revel in the "impure" rhymes of Goethe, Schiller, and Heine. And as for English poetry, it seems to me that the uncompromising advocates of pure rhymes are happily confronted by the well-known fact that Burns's "Highland Mary," which will move human hearts as long as any language is spoken, does not contain one single perfect rhyme. G. P.

SUMMIT, N. J., February 13, 1899.

FILES OF THE LONDON *TIMES*.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a notice in the *Nation* for February 16, on the acquisition of a file of the London *Times* by the Boston Public Library, it is stated that the file "in the Congressional Library is the only one in America containing all issues of the *Times* from its establishment in 1788." This, I regret to say, is not the case. The file in the Library of Congress begins with the number for July 4, 1791, and runs to December 31, 1791. Then five years are missing; the set being complete only from January 1, 1796.

DAVID HUTCHESON.

LIBRARY OF CONGRESS, WASHINGTON, February 20, 1899.

Notes.

G. P. Putnam's Sons' spring announcements include 'Historic Towns of the Middle States,' edited by the Rev. Lyman P. Powell, and uniform with his 'Historic Towns of New England'; 'History of the Territorial Expansion of the United States,' by Charles Henry Butler; the second volume of Blok's 'History of the People of the Netherlands,' translated by Ruth Putnam; 'The Story of the People of England in the Nineteenth Century,' by Justin McCarthy, M. P.; 'The West Indies,' by Prof. Amos Kidder Fiske; 'Erasmus,' by Prof. Emerton of Harvard; the long-expected 'Life of George Borrow,' by Prof. William I. Knapp, in two volumes; 'Israel Putnam,' by a descendant, W. F. Livingston; 'The Law and History of Copyright in Books,' by Augustine Birrell; 'The United States Naval Academy,' by Park Benjamin; 'Roman Africa,' by Gaston Boissier; 'Industrial Cuba,' by Robert P. Porter; 'Nature Studies in Berkshire,' by the Rev. W. Coleman Adams, with photogravures; 'Volcanoes,' by Prof. T. G. Bonney; 'Shakspere in France,' by J. J. Jusserand; 'Dante Interpreted for Students,' by E. Wilson, with original translations from the "Inferno"; 'A Study of Wagner,' by Ernest Newman; 'Islam in Africa,' by the Rev. Anson P. Atterbury; 'The New Far East,' by Arthur Diosy; 'Methods and Problems of Spiritual Healing,' by Horatio W. Dresser; and 'Proportion and Harmony in Line and Color,' by George L. Raymond.

'Tales of the Malayan Coast,' by Rounseville Wildman, United States Consul at Hong Kong; 'Germany, her People and their Story,' by Augusta Hale Gifford; and 'The Story of Our War with Spain,' by Elbridge S. Brooks, are in the press of the Lothrop Publishing Co., Boston.

In editing the correspondence of Hans von Bülow, the letters exchanged between himself and Liszt were made a separate volume ('Briefwechsel zwischen Liszt und Hans von Bülow'; Leipzig: Breitkopf & Härtel; New York: Lemcke & Buechner). These being, however, in by far the greater proportion, written in French, the Leipzig house has very properly concluded to make an edition wholly French, to cover, title, and preface (and perhaps index, though this is of proper names).

Mr. Albert G. Robinson, who was correspondent of the *Evening Post* in Porto Rico during the war and later, has published through the Scribners 'Porto Rico of To-day.' It consists of letters first printed in that newspaper, revised and expanded. We may say of them that they have received high praise from those who know the island well, as being an intelligent and faithful study of present conditions in Porto Rico.

Longmans, Green & Co. bring out the new edition of Mr. Lecky's 'Democracy and Liberty,' in two volumes. The author seizes the occasion of a reissue to write a preface of more than fifty pages, principally devoted to showing that the most melancholy of his predictions of three years ago are sensibly nearer fulfilment, and containing a notable depreciatory estimate of Mr. Gladstone.

Chapman's 'Iliad' follows at a sufficiently long interval his 'Odyssey' in the charming Temple Classics of Dent (New York: Macmillan); but its welcome is assured. The sub-editor, Mr. W. H. D. Rouse, has appended twenty-two sonnets mostly already printed in connection with his Homeric editions by Chapman himself, and mostly dedications of the several parts of the translation to noble patrons. Mr. Rouse has edited as a companion volume Casaubon's translation of the 'Meditations' of Marcus Aurelius. Brand-new are a translation from the Italian, by T. W. Arnold, of 'The Little Flowers of St. Francis,' an anonymous work of the fourteenth century; and another, from the French, by Dr. Sebastian Evans, of 'The High History of the Holy Grail,' also anonymous, with embellishments by Burne-Jones, and an epilogue by Mr. Evans exhibiting the literary history of the book, with a theory of its origin. No other direct English version exists. The present fills two of these handy pocket volumes, and is offered "in all good faith" as "the original story of Sir Percival and the Holy Graal, whole and incorrupt as it left the hands of its first author."

In the year 1743, in Garrison Forest (so named because it contained an ancient fort built as a defence against Indian forays) was erected a modest place of worship, which is perhaps the only church in Maryland that has continued for so many years in regular use. It belonged to the Establishment, and

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the Rev. Thomas Cradock was the first rector. Interesting historical facts about the church itself and the old Maryland families whose members worshipped within its walls, or lie under rudely carved stones in the churchyard, are given in 'The Garrison Church,' by the Rev. Ethan Allen (James Pott & Co.), with addition of much valuable genealogical matter from the parish records.

The latest volume of the Columbia University Studies in Political Science, entitled 'Rhode Island and the Formation of the Union,' by Frank Greene Bates (Macmillan), treats in an exhaustive manner one of the most interesting questions in the early political history of our country. It is a well-known fact that Rhode Island was the last of the thirteen colonies to enter the Union: it was almost three years after the submission of the Constitution to the several colonies, and almost two years after its ratification by the other twelve, that Rhode Island reluctantly cast in her lot with her sister States. The reasons for this reluctance have always been obscure. The present volume, tracing the preconstitutional history of the State, finds in the religious and social character of the people, and in the peculiar commercial and financial conditions of the colony, an adequate explanation, tending to remove misapprehensions in regard to her patriotism which have been rife for a century. The investigation, which is based largely on manuscript collections and records, and which involved patient labor stretching over several years, is a noteworthy contribution to American preconstitutional history.

The first three volumes of 'Special Reports on Educational Subjects,' published by the English Education Department in 1897-98, and sold by Eyre & Spottiswoode (London), contains sixty-seven separate reports on the educational systems of England and other countries, and on a variety of opportune subjects. Such timely questions as the connection between the public library and the public school, the arrangement of school museums, the physical education of girls, school hygiene, higher commercial education, manual training, games and athletics, the teaching of foreign languages, etc., etc., are treated by contributors specially fitted for the task. The article on the "Study of Education" (vol. ii., p. 337), by Dr. J. J. Findlay, is a thorough and critical discussion of the whole subject. The editor of the series, Mr. M. E. Sadler, Director of Special Enquiries and Reports, writes on the "Problems in Prussian Secondary Education for Boys, with special reference to similar questions in England" (vol. iii., p. 83), and gives us what is perhaps the most convenient and comprehensive treatise on the secondary-school question in Germany in its historical relations. From an account of the "London School of Economics and Political Science," by the Director of the School, Mr. A. S. Hewins (vol. ii., p. 76), we learn that in this new institution—it was founded in 1895 in conscious imitation of existing institutions of the kind in Paris, New York, and elsewhere, yet specially adapted to English needs—the instruction is given by twenty lecturers, besides the Director, to an average of four hundred students during the second and third years. The history and condition of economics in England are treated in one of the sections of this report. Specialists in this country who keep abreast of the progress in their departments in civilized countries may not discover in these volumes much that is absolutely new to them, but an examination of their contents may yet prove advantageous. For all public and school libraries these Special Reports are unquestionably of great value. For the next volume, contributions are promised by Commissioner Harris and President Eliot on some aspects of American education.

The Baron de Baye reprints, in pamphlet form, from the *Revue de Géographie*, his lecture entitled 'De Penza à Minoussinsk: Souvenirs d'une Mission' (Paris: Librairie Nilsson). It gives an outline sketch of his third trip to Siberia, and includes several very interesting particulars concerning the Mordvinians of the Penza Government, in Russia proper. It is very fully illustrated from photographs, most of them taken by the author. He does not distinctly state the nature of his "mission," or enter into details as to what he accomplished; but the reader infers from references in the text that it was for the purpose of collecting archæological material, as he mentions having presented many objects found in Siberian mounds to Siberian museums. This is, however, more of a "travel sketch," and, as such, legitimately offers numerous interesting bits of information about the peasant immigration to Siberia from Russia, the conditions attached thereto, and the efficient management of this important and complicated matter by the Russian Government. For adequate comprehension of the Baron's mission and aims this pamphlet should, without a doubt, be combined with whatever he has previously published in regard to his Russian and Siberian trips.

Several years ago, M. Paul Lacombe, inspector-general of the French archives, published an interesting book entitled 'De l'Histoire considérée comme Science,' in which he endeavored to derive the laws of human progress from a consideration of the constant intermingling of the institutional element of social life with what he called the "événement," *i. e.*, the influence of personal forces. He has just supplemented this essay by another entitled 'Introduction à l'Histoire Littéraire' (Paris: Hachette), in which he reviews the development of literature, particularly of French literature, from a similar standpoint. It can hardly be said that the results of this review are in any sense startling. That literary progress moves along the line of greater refinement in form and greater variety of psychological characterization, is a commonplace true enough as far as it goes, but scarcely of such fundamental importance as M. Lacombe seems to assume. Nevertheless, this book is a noteworthy contribution to the study of literature. In contradistinction to both Taine and Brunetière, it emphasizes the prime significance of the literary personality, and assigns to the influences of race and epoch the place of concomitant causes only. Its principal merit is a penetrating analysis of the artistic temper.

Dr. Anton Bettelheim, the well-known biographer of Beaumarchais and Anzengruber, has collected a number of his literary and biographical sketches which during the last two years were written for *Cosmopolis*, *Die Nation*, and other periodicals, into an attractive little volume bearing the title 'Acta Diurna' (Vienna: Hartleben; New York: Lemcke & Buechner). While these short papers have not the same finish nor the same charm of individuality which distinguished the author's former work, they form a convenient *chronique littéraire* of recent events in German intellectual life. The range of subjects touched upon is extensive enough to include, for instance, a sketch of the marvellous growth of Reclam's 'Universalbibliothek'; a scathing criticism of Nordau's advocacy of the Zionite movement; a charming characterization of the Swiss novelist Widmann; notices of Fontane's masterwork 'Effi Briest,' of Naumann's essays on Christian socialism, of Saar's Austrian novels; and character studies of such different personalities as Gerhart Hauptmann, Friedrich Mitterwurzer, and Charlotte Wolters. One gains from these pages a fresh sense of the great wealth of literary talent and of earnest spiritual endeavor stored up in contemporary German life. Surely a country where a single publishing firm, Reclam, records a sale within the last thirty years of 619,000 copies of 'Wilhelm Tell,' of 490,000 copies of 'Hermann und Dorothea,' of 33,000 copies of Schopenhauer's collected works; where Sudermann's "Johannes" within a year has been performed at a single theatre more than a hundred times; and where there is not a single city of importance which does not maintain a theatre of respectable standing and artistic merit—such a country may be considered spiritually safe even in the turmoil and seeming degeneracy of *fin de siècle* art.

"Accordingly to these probabilities, in no more adequate moment than present time,—when the first rays of an era of great prosperity have just arisen from a hopeful horizon,—can the life of such beautiful island as Cuba, justify the creation of this technical review, which will be, in some sort, a periodical monography of Cuban life." We take this sentence from the prospectus of the *Island of Cuba Magazine*, a private venture, published at Havana, but distributed in the United States by the "International Exchanges" of the Smithsonian Institution. It suggests the question why the exchanges should be used for this purpose. Would any magazine be allowed to use them? and if not, what "pull" has the Cuban monthly?

The *Osprey*, an illustrated magazine of ornithology published monthly, with a vacation in July and August, has been transferred from New York to Washington, where it is edited by Elliott Coues and Theodore Gill. Its aim is popular, not technical, and the three concluding numbers of last year (vol. iii.) contain much interesting reading. Between birds and trees there is a close relation, and some of the most curious plates are of strange vegetation in the arid parts of this continent. In the December number a plate showing two blue jays is from the pencil of Louis Agassiz Fuertes, which on this occasion has almost a Japanese facility.

The *National Geographic Magazine* for January contains an illustrated description of a trip up the Stikine River in Alaska, by Eliza R. Scidmore. On account of its magnificent scenery this stream's valley has been called "a Yosemite 100 miles long." At one point twelve great glaciers can be seen, and there are 300 which flow directly into the river. Along the shores were frequent signs of the recent rush of gold-seekers to the Klondike and its sudden collapse. At Glenora, the head of navigation, everything apparently was for sale—"so rough notices at every door-sill and tent-flap told." In a brief article on the West Indian hurricane of September 10-11, 1898, Prof. E. B. Garriott

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quotes from a Jesuit writer curious testimony to the belief in a general law as to the recurrence of hurricanes in this region. The ecclesiastical authority from time immemorial ordained that the priests in Porto Rico should recite in the mass the prayer for warding off tempests during the months of August and September, but not in October; and that in Cuba it should be recited in September and October, but not in August. Mr. O. P. Austin of the Bureau of Statistics gives some interesting facts in regard to the colonial systems of the world. Two prizes, of $150 and $75, are offered by the National Geographic Society for the best essays on Norse discoveries in America, the competition to close December 31, 1899.

The two numbers of volume ii. of the *American Journal of Archæology* for 1898, issued by the Archæological Institute of America (Macmillan), possess a remarkable range of interest, from the Euphrates to Crete, Corinth, and Rome. We may mention Dr. William Hayes Ward's cylinder testimony as to the horse in ancient Babylonia, and Dr. Richardson's preliminary report on the excavations at Corinth. Among the plates accompanying the latter is a view of the uncovered spring, Pirene.

A contributor to the *Revue Internationale dê l'Enseignement* for January describes in a few pages the farcical system of secondary education in Spain. The schools in question are the so-called Provincial Institutes, where boys between the ages of ten and sixteen are instructed and examined in thirty-five subjects, seven of which have been added to the list by a recent decree of the Minister of Education, viz.: Political economy, common law, history of Spanish literature, history of art, book-keeping, and industrial and agricultural technics. The Minister also recommends visits to the museums, but, as the writer remarks, in nine towns out of ten where the institutes are situated, the only museums are the churches with their wax images. The boys work from three to four and a half hours a day, and the newspapers are in a rage over such outrageous disregard for the life and health of the Spanish youth. The deplorable condition of elementary education in the kingdom may be inferred from the status of the common-school teachers as depicted in a recent number of the *Pädagogische Zeitung*. Out of 23,000 teachers, in round numbers, included in the last census, nearly 3,000 were receiving thirty dollars or less annually, 5,000 were paid from fifty to one hundred dollars, and the salary of only 1,000 amounted to more than two hundred and fifty dollars. But the worst of it is that thousands of these poor men and women were not even paid the pittance to which their contracts entitled them.

'Some Efforts of American Negroes for their own Social Betterment' is the title of a pamphlet report of the Third Atlanta Conference for the study of negro problems (No. 3 of the Atlanta University Publications). This document proves once more the useful work undertaken by the University in gathering statistics of social conditions and needs among the black population of the South. Church societies figure largely in the reformatory efforts here tabulated and discussed, along with secret beneficent societies, organized philanthropy, coöperative business enterprises, and the like. In North Carolina, so lately convulsed by race clashings, the richest black man in the State has promoted the building of a cotton mill for his color, and white Northern liberality has been reinforced by black sympathy and aid in establishing a hospital for negro consumptives. In Texas, a former student at Atlanta University has founded a Farmers' Improvement Society, which in one town has made the negro quarter more attractive than the white. This is said to have branches in thirty-six towns, and 1,800 members. There is much other suggestive information in this report.

A circular letter, signed by Prof. William H. Carpenter, has been sent out from Columbia University asking for contributions of Dutch books and pamphlets for the library of that institution. The letter calls attention to the fact that, in the early days of the Dutch settlement, and subsequently during the time that the descendants of the original settlers still retained a knowledge of the language, books written in Dutch found their way here in considerable numbers. Many such books have been preserved, but, with the disappearance of the language, they have, for the most part, been put aside and forgotten. A collection of Dutch books, it is plain, would have a great literary and historical value if they were catalogued and made accessible to students. A few generations more will see the dispersion and irrecoverable loss of a good deal of material of this kind that is now packed away in lumber-rooms and attics. In the new Library of Columbia, with its liberal provisions for use, such books would be preserved for all time under the most favorable conditions, and would, no doubt, contribute their part to the increased interest in our Dutch beginnings that of late years has shown itself in the community.

—Parliament has again faced the problems of local taxation, and the first report of the royal commission on that subject has just been published. The crux is to be found in the system of valuing property for taxation, and any plan that provides uniformity, equality, simplicity, and economy would be acceptable. Under existing methods it is possible, outside of the metropolis, for five independent valuations for the purpose of raising rates and taxes to exist contemporaneously in the same area. In England and Wales alone there are more than 1,000 valuation authorities. With such a multiplicity of agents it is useless to look for satisfactory results, and the differences in other lines greatly increase the confusion. There is no fixed or necessary time for making the valuation lists; no uniform system of, or scale for, making deductions for arriving at the ratable values of certain classes of property; exemptions and allowances are said to be allowed unduly, through pressure brought to bear on the assessing authorities; and the assessment committees have no statutory power to ascertain from owners or occupiers the rent paid and other particulars. Added to these is the common action of authorities in keeping the valuation low so as to reduce their contribution towards common expenditure.

—Many attempts have been made to obtain one uniform mode of rating throughout England, but without success. Of late years, a change has occurred in the relative importance of the different rates. In 1880 the county and borough authorities raised 10 per cent. less than the Poor-Law authorities; in 1897 the former raised nearly 73 per cent. more than the latter, and the great increase has been incurred by the county boroughs. The committee assert that, owing to the distribution of the Poor-Law Unions, it is impossible to suggest any scheme which will in all cases secure that the area of each spending authority shall be conterminous with the areas of one or more valuation authorities, or be wholly comprised in the area of one valuation authority. This division of responsibility leads to extravagance, and can be corrected only by creating areas in which the valuation for all purposes shall be the same. A central Government department is set aside as undesirable, and the county borough—not always the geographical county—is suggested as a proper administrative unit, with power to adopt the geographical county. Under the direction of the county or borough councils, the valuation lists are to be prepared; but legislation must provide for the establishment of a maximum scale of deductions, and for compulsory returns from owners of rent paid and other particulars. Special properties, such as railways, canals, mines, docks, gas, water, and electric-light works, should be valued by an expert valuer, subject to appeals to the Railway Commission, or a special tribunal created for that purpose. Although it is provided that the general valuation list should be prepared, whenever practicable, by professional surveyors, the list is subject to revision on appeal. The report is an interesting attempt to point the way to uniformity in what is now a very confused matter.

—Public interest in Italy, especially in educated and political circles, has been occupied with the rather singular *Mondragone* affair. Mondragone is the name of a Jesuit college near Frascati, which, chiefly because it happened to be popular among the aristocratic classes as a school for their boys, was permitted to continue in operation, notwithstanding the law of 1866, which put an end to all the religious orders and their work throughout the peninsula. The laws of Italy demand that when the pupils of a private educational establishment enter the higher schools of the state, they must pass certain examinations. As the pupils from Mondragone very frequently were not able to pass these examinations on account of the inefficiency of the work done by the Jesuit teachers, the friends of that school proposed to have it recognized officially by the state. A petition soon turned up signed by no less than 108 prominent names, notably of members of Parliament, addressed to the Minister of Education, Baccelli, who obligingly decreed that the final examinations at Mondragone should admit pupils to the higher state institutions. Here, then, was the singular phenomenon of a recognition of the Jesuits by a country which since 1848 had officially banished all Jesuits from its borders. Quite naturally the Liberal press raised a decided protest. The list of the petitioners was published, and among them was found also that of Crispi. The signers nearly all began to publish excuses, and Crispi himself published two letters explaining how he came to sign such a document. The Minister of Education hastened to recall his recognition, and Mondragone is a private Jesuit school again as it has been in the past.

—The Peking revolution of last September, with its tragic check in the decapitation of six reformers, is the main theme treated of in the eleventh annual report of the Society for the Diffusion of Christian and Ge-

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neral Knowledge among the Chinese. Three distinct parties working for a rehabilitated China were discernible. One, led by Kang Yu Wei, was hampered by the cry raised to rally in defence of Confucianism. The second party sought for alliance only with Japan, and its cry was for union of Asia against Europe—thus conjuring up that "yellow spectre" which Kaiser Wilhelm feared and pictured. A third party, with broader views than either, was ready to adopt all that was good in the whole world, without fear of harm to their religion, their continent, or their country. This party had made great progress, for it centred in the Emperor himself and had many leading statesmen of China within its pale. The number of native newspapers had increased from 19 in 1895 to 70 in 1898, and the Son of Heaven himself had sent for books illustrating foreign learning and ideas, to the number of 129, of which 89 were published by this society. The Emperor, besides reading their books, followed the advice of the reformers, gave them personal interviews, and then issued a cluster of brilliant edicts, nine in number. These bade fair to relay the foundations of the Chinese social order and intellectual culture, as well as material and political and educational developments. Unfortunately, the reformed cabinet advised cashiering some of the obstructionists, a change of costume, and the cutting off of the cue. These last straws made the burden too heavy for the anti-foreign party, who gathered around the Empress Dowager and misrepresented the motives and objects of the men they hated and feared. This remarkable old lady, now sixty-five years of age, forcibly took charge of the government, beheaded six reformers, imprisoned, banished or degraded scores of others, suppressed the restive newspapers, and forbade the formation of progressive societies or the appointment of men with reform ideas to positions of influence. But the leaven is still working. Besides the reprinting by native booksellers of the Society's publications, which cover every subject of interest to human beings, 181,249 copies of books, or more than 37,000,000 pages, were printed in 1898, and there were sold in 1898 $18,457 worth of printed matter, as compared with $12,146 in 1897. The active workers in this society are mostly Americans, though the supporters are various English-speaking people.

—In a recently published paper by Mr. H. C. Russell, read last summer before the Royal Society of New South Wales, an account is given of a remarkable series of water-spouts observed off Eden on May 16 last. Although the phenomenon is said to be frequently observed near this coast, sometimes in groups of three or four, the display recorded is by far the grandest ever described. Within the space of five hours, fourteen complete water-spouts and six others more or less imperfect were formed from a single mass of cloud. Nothing remarkable had been noticed in the precedent weather. In Eden, as throughout southeastern Australia generally, the morning was fine and calm, but early in the forenoon a heavy bank of cloud appeared on the eastern horizon, becoming more dense as it drifted toward the shore. About eleven o'clock Mr. Pilot Newton saw the first water-spout, which seemed to have come suddenly into existence. As straight as a shaft, it was estimated to be thirty times as high as a clipper ship, or about 5,000 feet. Beginning, perhaps, eight miles from the coast, it drifted toward the southwest until only about three or four miles away, and then quickly disappeared. Mr. D. R. Crichton, a mining engineer, watched carefully through his theodolite, eight water-spouts being visible at one time. Of the fourteen complete ones, reaching from cloud to sea, the first was nearest the shore, the others gradually farther off, until the last must have been distant about thirty miles, toward four o'clock in the afternoon. The weather and sea were perfectly calm and quiet all the time. The cones at top and bottom of one of these spouts were measured, and found about 100 feet in diameter, while the length of each cone from its base to the point at which the spout became cylindrical was probably 250 feet. The column formed by the junction of the two cones was entirely symmetrical and about ten feet in diameter. The formation and subsidence of the spouts made an interesting scene. First, on the placid sea, came a violent disturbance, in which a rotary motion of waves throughout a surface about a third of a mile in diameter could be distinctly seen, and large quantities of broken water were raised upward. As the motion increased, the agitated space became less, the spray denser, and in two or three minutes the base of the whirlpool was formed, gradually rising to a cone-topped misty shaft or column. During all this time the clouds above were projecting an inverted cone downward for a third of the distance, until suddenly the two united, the apparent rotary motion ceased, and for ten or twelve minutes the smooth column remained unchanged. Slowly the cloud drifted eastward, dragging the water-spout far out of the perpendicular. Gradually dividing in the middle, the top rose, the bottom sank, the rotary motion again became perceptible, the water was greatly disturbed, and finally normal conditions once more prevailed. The last water-spout but one appeared to take its start from the débris of the preceding. The original conditions necessary to produce this phenomenon may be stated in general as a massive cloud of large extent floating over warm ocean water in calm weather. In an appendix Mr. Russell gives a list of thirty-eight water-spouts recorded during ten years off the coast of New South Wales, and a series of remarkable plates illustrating the more unusual.

—Mr. Russell also sends out an abstract of a paper upon the source of the periodic waves recorded from time to time on the Sydney and Newcastle tide gauges. In 1868, records of such waves of unusual dimensions were made through four days, and were subsequently thought to be due to the great earthquake at Arica, in South America. Also in 1874 and 1877 similar waves are recorded, apparently traceable to earthquakes, although after many terrestrial upheavals there are no unusual waves noticed. An ingenious explanation from the records of currents, barometric pressure, shape of coast line, and areas of low depression travelling rapidly, is given as theory to account for these periodic waves.

—Thomas Bewick, the father of modern wood-engraving, passed to that art from an apprenticeship in cutting seals and general engraving on steel and copper. In this, it now appears, he typified the order of evolution of the two arts. Moreover, the woodcuts in the fable line which made his early fame were more or less influenced in their design by their copper or type-metal predecessors. Here again he followed the order of three centuries before his time. Such is the conclusion to which Mr. Lionel Cust comes in the folio just issued by the Clarendon Press (New York: Henry Frowde), entitled 'The Master E. S. and the "Ars Moriendi": A Chapter in the History of Engraving during the Fifteenth Century.' Whereas the history of printing alike and of engraving for impression has heretofore commonly begun with the block-book, Mr. Cust is able to show irrefutably that the rare block-book 'Ars Moriendi,' purchased by the British Museum in 1872 for about $1,300, and whose date is conjectured to be 1440, has for illustrations enlarged copies, with some insignificant liberties, of the set of illustrations to the same work executed on copper by the Master E. S., of which the only complete series extant is at Oxford. Mr. Cust further shows corroboratively that there had been an earlier plagiarist on wood from these coppers, viz., the so-called Master of St. Erasmus, who copied them directly and also reversed them. That every reader of this discussion may be convinced, Mr. Cust prints facsimiles of E. S. and of the block-book, and these alone would be worth the price of the book, which is a matter of some sixty pages, the plates included. Mr. Cust expresses amply his indebtedness to the labors and counsel of Dr. Max Lehrs, the present Director of the Cabinet of Prints and Drawings in the Royal Museums at Dresden, the first living authority on the subject of the history of copper-engraving north of the Alps, soon to publish a work upon it. The entire originality of E. S., so far as is known from many examples, and the want of evidence that he himself might have engraved the block-book or even used the knife, lead Dr. Lehrs to believe that "the unique series of engravings in the Douce Collection at Oxford are the real *editio princeps* of the famous *Ars Moriendi*." In any event, the gage is here thrown down, and every library which cares for the fine arts, and every connoisseur, will need this handsome volume of Mr. Cust's.

SVEN HEDIN IN ASIA.

Through Asia. By Sven Hedin. With nearly 300 illustrations from sketches and photographs by the author. 2 vols. Harpers. 1899. Maps. 8vo.

For courage, endurance, devotion to science, keenness of observation, tactful dealing with men, and for the extent and importance of his explorations, Dr. Sven Hedin deserves a foremost place among travellers. A considerable faculty for simple but graphic description, also, makes the story of his three and a half years' wanderings a notable contribution to literature. The unusual variety of his experiences is due mainly to the nature of the country through which he travelled. In Central Asia alone are to be found in close proximity the characteristic features both of the polar regions and of the tropics. Here, as in Greenland, the traveller may wander for weeks and months at all seasons over vast expanses of snow and ice, encountering the fiercest storms with Arctic cold. Descending from these wintry heights, he passes amid fields of rice and cotton into a desert where, as in Africa or Australia, he may perish from the torrid heat, from thirst, or from the pitiless sand driven by winds violent enough to reverse the current of a

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river. Here, too, can be seen the formative powers of nature in sublimest action; the ice, snow, rain, wind, and sands shaping deserts, changing the course of rivers, obliterating and making lakes, carving out the beds of streams, cutting down lofty plateaux —works suggestive of those geologic ages when the globe was being prepared for the abode of man. Then the fact that Asia is the cradle of our race gives a peculiar interest to the accounts of the primitive life of the Kirghiz shepherds, and of the cities of unknown age and origin which the explorer found buried under the shifting sands. The personality of the young traveller—he was barely twenty-nine at the beginning of this journey—is strongly shown throughout his modest narrative. It is, as it were, the autobiography of a veritable hero of science —a man who fearlessly confronts any peril on glacier or desert to trace the course of a river or the depth and contour of a lake; who of two passes will promptly choose the one promising most of danger and hardship if by taking it he can add to our knowledge of a mountain-range.

It was not one continuous journey of which Dr. Hedin gives a report in this work, but of several, during which he explored a considerable part of the Pamirs, the great desert of East Turkestan, and a strip of Northern Tibet. The aggregate extent of his explorations was 6,520 miles, out of which 2,020 "were through regions which no European had ever before visited." King Oscar of Sweden, with other friends of science, bore the cost of the various expeditions. The noteworthy part of his journey began at Orenburg, whence he crossed the Kirghiz steppes by tarantass to the foot of the Alai Mountains, a route now almost superseded by the Transcaspian railway. Among the places through which he passed was Kokand, a true university city, having thirty-five Mohammedan colleges with 5,300 students, and eighty-one schools for boys and girls, with about 1,200 pupils. Thirty of these schools were founded with money left for the purpose, and are situated near the testators' graves.

A winter journey over the Pamirs, Hedin's first exploring work, was a task of great difficulty and danger, from the height of the mountain passes, the cold (the thermometer drops there to —45° Fahr.), and the frequent, almost daily blizzards. "These burans, or snow hurricanes, come on with startling suddenness. One minute the sky will be perfectly clear; scarcely one minute later, and down swoops the storm. In an instant the path is obliterated. The atmosphere grows dark with whirling snowflakes. It is impossible to see a yard before you. All you can do is to stand perfectly still, wrap your furs about you, and thank God if you escape with your life." Surmounting almost insuperable obstacles on the passes over the Alai and Trans-Alai Mountains, our explorer climbed to the "roof of the world," and crossed it to the Russian frontier post, Fort Pamir. From his observations made in this and other expeditions in this region, he divides the "gigantic quadrilateral" into an eastern half, which is principally a plateau land, and a western half, consisting of a system of latitudinal mountain-chains. "There can be no doubt," he says, "that at one period the entire region was strictly a plateau, and that it is being rapidly broken down by the agency of erosion."

The spring and summer of 1894 were spent mainly in exploring the glaciers of Mus-tagh-ata, "the father of the ice-mountains," and, like all conspicuous peaks, invested with a halo of mystery by the Kirghiz, and made the centre of fantastic legends. Four attempts were made to reach the summit, 25,590 feet; but though Dr. Hedin rode on a yak to a height of 19,750 feet, the wind, the cold, and the rarefaction of the air prevented his climbing even a thousand feet higher. The mountain is in Chinese territory, and the difficulty which he experienced in crossing the frontier, notwithstanding his passport, was a striking testimony to the watchfulness of the Chinese, and their jealous fear of their powerful neighbors. The mandarins have an extraordinary way of enumerating their forces. "They are not content with counting the soldiers only, but reckon in also their horses, rifles, shoes, *breeches, and so forth*," apparently on the supposition that the rifle is at least as valuable as the man, and that a man is of little use if he has to go about naked and afoot. The somewhat monotonous record of Dr. Hedin's daily experiences in this cheerless region, and his observations of the depths of lakes, the volume of rivers, and the progress of glaciers, is agreeably diversified by accounts of the garrison life at Fort Pamir and at Kashgar, where he recruited after these expeditions. Prominent among these episodes is the meeting with the Anglo-Russian boundary commission in the southern Pamirs. He was present when a telegram came announcing that the British Government accepted the frontier which the Russians proposed to them. This event, which "occasioned the greatest rejoicing in both camps," was celebrated by dinners given on successive days by the Russian and British commissioners. The festivities of the second day were closed by national dances around a huge bonfire, the material for which "had all been brought for the purpose from Kanjut, on the other side of the Hindu-Kush," more than a hundred miles distant.

To the east of the Pamirs stretches the Takla-makan desert, several hundred miles in width, uninhabited and untraversed save by a few adventurous natives searching for gold and hidden treasures. Prompted by the desire to explore the unknown, as well as in hopes of finding traces of ancient civilization, Dr. Hedin ventured into this wilderness in the spring of 1895. He had with him four natives and eight camels, besides dogs, sheep, and chickens, his aim being to reach a stream cutting the desert in halves some two hundred miles to the east. For the first thirteen days everything went well, and water was got every day by digging. On April 23 they camped by a small lake, and he ordered his men to put a ten days' supply in the iron water-tanks. The desert now resembled a petrified sea, with giant waves, sometimes from one hundred and fifty to two hundred feet high. Up the steep inclines of these sand-dunes the camels clambered with marvellous surety of foot, while the men slipped back at almost every step they took. After two days in this chaos of dunes, he discovered that, either by negligence or by treachery, only two days' supply of water remained. Misled by the false information of his guide, instead of turning back to the lake, he pressed on farther into the desert. Day after day passed without a sign of the stream of which they were in search. The strength of the camels began to fail, and one by one they were left behind. During one whole march a suffocating hurricane blew, making midday dark as pitch. Every sense was alert to discover any trace of water, a tree or depression in the sands in which they might dig. At one despairing moment a buzzing gad-fly raised their hopes to fever point. "We believed we were nearing land." On April 30 the carefully husbanded water gave out, and the next day was spent in what Dr. Hedin fitly terms the "camp of death." All day long he lay in his tent wide awake, but tortured with delirious memories of streams and fountains. In the afternoon a cool breeze sprang up, and "something happened which I can only look upon as a miracle. As the sun drew nearer and nearer to the horizon, so did my strength gradually return; and by the time he rested like a glowing cannon-ball on the tops of the dunes in the west, I was completely recovered. My body had regained all its former elasticity. I felt as if I could walk for days and days. I burned with impatience to be up and doing. I *would* not die." With two of his followers he left the camp that night, and for five days he struggled on, leaving first one and then the other of the men. On the night of the 5th of May he reached the bed of the Khotan-daria—and it was empty. "The sand was as dry as the sand in the desert dunes." With unfailing courage, and resisting an overpowering desire to sleep, he kept on to the farther bank of the river-bed, and, when within a few yards of it, he says, "a wild duck, alarmed by my approach, flew up and away as swift as an arrow. I heard a splash, and in the next moment I stood on the brink of a little pool filled with fresh, cool *water*—beautiful water. Before drinking" (he ends a narrative which will doubtless become classic in the annals of travel), "I counted my pulse; it was forty-nine." Carrying water in his boots, he found one of his men, and eventually another rejoined him, having been rescued by a passing caravan. The two others probably perished.

Nothing daunted by his sufferings and his narrow escape from death, a few months later he ventured again into that part of the desert lying to the east of Khotan-daria, a part of the desert of Gobi. About midway through it he came to the remains of a half-buried city, covering an area from two to two and a half miles in diameter. "All the houses were built of wood (poplar); not a single trace of a stone or clay house was discernible." Sticking out from the sand were posts, six to ten feet high, cracked and hard, but brittle as glass. Some remnants of the plastered walls were discovered, decorated with painted images of Buddha and pictures of men and women. With some difficulty he reached the River Tarim, the northern boundary of the desert, and followed it to its outlet in Lake Lop-nor. A chapter is devoted to a discussion of the vexed Lop-nor problem, which the promised publication of his scientific observations may help to settle definitively. His conclusion is that Lop-nor is a wandering lake and is now moving westward. Two of the great forces of nature are to be seen in this region at the height of their power. The evaporation is so great that four large streams—one of which, "summer and winter, day and night alike, has a steady flow of 2,490 cubic feet in the second" —are not strong enough to maintain a permanent lake in the heart of the desert. Then, during one march, the wind blew from the east with such violence that the surface current of the Tarim was reversed and

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the lake expanded to an appreciable extent.

Dr. Hedin's journey through northern Tibet and across the Tsaidam desert to China in 1896 does not call for special note. His route was a little to the north of that which the English explorer, Capt. Wellby, followed the same year. Their experiences were similar, only that, being accustomed to long journeys in uninhabited wastes, Dr. Hedin does not show that intense longing for signs of human life which characterized the other traveller's narrative. The sufferings of the caravan from cold and lack of food were great. Fortunately no lives were lost, though out of fifty-six camels, horses, and donkeys which started, all but seven had perished when, after two months in the mountain solitudes, the party came down to the first Mongolian shepherd's camp.

Dr. Hedin is a typical explorer. He never loses sight of the fact that the one object of all his travels is to gain knowledge. In every place through which he passed,

"I always asked," he says, "the same questions in the same order, namely, the population of the place, its products, saints' tombs, mosques, legends, whether spring or autumn sowing was customary, or both, whether the same ground was used twice in the same year for different kinds of cereals, or whether the ground produced only one crop in the season, or even in every second year; about trade and intercommunication, roads, the distance to the desert and to the mountains, the origin and volume of the water in the rivers, the time when they usually froze and when the ice began to melt, the system of irrigation and the local regulations connected with it, the wells, prevailing winds, frequency of burans, rainfall, snowfall, etc. One question paved the way for another, and the whole thing took me from two to three hours; after that everything was carefully written down."

Though science is the first thing from the beginning to the end of his travels, yet his narrative is constantly interspersed with bright descriptive touches, picturing his dogs and their ways, his companions, or some unusually interesting camp scene or incident. Not infrequently he shows considerable imaginative or poetical power, as in his description of moonlight on the Mus-tagh-ata.

The translation from the original Swedish, by Mr. J. T. Bealby, is admirably done. We have noted one or two pardonable errors in changing the readings of a centigrade thermometer to Fahrenheit, and we are inclined to see a mistranslation in the statement that "not quite one pint of [sesame] oil will sustain a camel for a month without food." The numerous illustrations add greatly to the charm of the volumes, especially the portrait sketches by Dr. Hedin himself, and the reproductions of his photographs. One of his prominent characteristics is his modesty, but he makes one statement in his preface of which the truth will be unquestioned by all who read his story: "Although fully conscious of the mistakes of my journey and of the shortcomings of this my book, . . . I believe I really did my best as far as lay in my power."

GEIKIE'S EARTH SCULPTURE.

Earth Sculpture; or, The Origin of Land Forms. By James Geikie. Putnams. 1898.

Modern physical geography is distinguished from that which prevailed a decade or two ago in that, while the latter contented itself with a simple description of the various forms of the earth's surface, the former searches into the causes which have produced these forms, and thus encroaches somewhat upon the field of the cognate science of geology. In the earlier conceptions of geology it was assumed that mountains and similar features of the earth's surface were due to violent convulsions of nature which had long since ceased to exist—to a *Sturm und Drang* period of the earth's youth, which, in the present old age of our planet, had been succeeded by comparative lethargy and repose. Such conceptions are still prevalent to a greater or less degree among a large proportion of untechnical people. The miner, who has the greatest familiarity with the internal phenomena of mountains, finds it necessary to call upon violent catastrophes —"blowouts" he is apt to style them—to account for the wonders he observes. On the other hand, the tendency of scientific study has long been to find an explanation of these earlier phenomena in the processes that are going on at the present time. The action of air and water in their various forms, combined with diurnal changes of temperature, if allowed a sufficiently long time in which to act, are competent to produce most of the forms which we see in our mountains, valleys, and lake basins.

The Messrs. Putnam's new "Science Series" aims to give the important aspects of contemporary science by means of a set of essays by well-recognized specialists on the latest and most advanced views in the various departments and divisions of science, for the information not only of students in other branches, but of the educated classes in general. The list of subjects in this series, as far as made public, gives a prominent place to geography and geology, which, in the modern aspect of these sciences, are made much more interdependent than of old. Physiography, or the form of the land, has been very properly intrusted to Prof. W. M. Davis of Harvard, who has done more, perhaps, than any other single person to bring the science of which he is to treat to its present advanced and rational stage. 'Earth Sculpture,' the volume now before us, which treats more exclusively of the geological causes which have produced these forms, is from the pen of the eminent Scotch geologist, James Geikie, best known, perhaps, as the author of 'The Great Ice Age,' and brother of Sir Archibald Geikie, the present Director-General of the Geological Surveys of Great Britain.

Although belonging to what may now be considered the old school of geologists, Prof. Geikie is one who has always realized the importance of connecting deep-seated geological causes with surface phenomena, and is hence well fitted for the task he has undertaken. His first chapter is on the agents of denudation. In this we might perhaps have expected from him, as an inheritor of the traditions of the Huttonian school of geology, mention of the controversy which was so long waged among European geologists between the opponents of and believers in the efficiency of simple erosion by water to remove thousands of feet of rock masses from enormous areas of the earth's surface, and which his brother's visit to the United States, to see with his own eyes the proofs that had been recorded by American geologists, did so much to settle finally in favor of the latter. He next takes up the various causes of elevations of portions of the earth's crust which erosion has since carved into mountains and valleys: (1) The plications of sedimentary strata into anticlinal and synclinal folds; (2) the great dislocations of these strata by faults, *i. e.*, fracture planes along which the rock masses, on one side or the other, have been moved up or down, sometimes many thousand feet, and which are probably a manifestation of the same force that has produced the folding or plication; and (3) igneous eruptions, or intrusions from below into the crust of enormous masses of molten rock, some of which have reached the surface either through narrow channels, forming volcanoes, or through a series of fissures forming lava-covered plateaux, while others have congealed beneath the surface in laccoliths or stone cisterns, bowing up the superjacent strata into dome-shaped mountain masses.

Next follows the action of the various agents of denudation or erosion upon the elevations thus produced, such as glacial action, æolian action, and the action of underground waters. Probably the geologist will be most interested in learning the views of this experienced glacialist upon some of the mooted questions with regard to glacial erosion; and first, whether glaciers do actually abrade or exercise any considerable cutting or eroding action upon the rocks over which they pass. This question he answers decidedly in the affirmative, showing that not only do glaciers score by means of the rocks imbedded in their basal surface, but they actually break up and quarry the rocks in their beds which have already been cracked and loosened by the alternate action of melting and freezing.

As to the origin of the loess, the productive soil of the great grain fields of the world, while treating it in the chapter on æolian action, he considers it to be primarily a flood-loam of glacial times, generally rearranged and distributed by wind action, thus adopting in part each of the contending theories. With regard to lake basins, he confirms the views first advanced by Ramsay, but since disputed by some geologists, that many of the valley basins in elevated regions have been primarily excavated by glacial ice. He calls attention to the fact that cirque-basins or rock amphitheatres with nearly or entirely perpendicular upper walls, in Europe, are generally on northern and eastern slopes, where the snow lies longest as being most protected from the sun and the prevailing west wind. The same fact and the same explanation hold for the glaciated regions of the Rocky Mountains in temperate latitudes. He does not, however, ascribe sufficient importance to the action of frost in the formation of these basins. Where lakes are found in the bottom of cirque-basins, they have doubtless been excavated, as he says, by the action of glacial ice, but the main excavation of the cirque itself is produced by eating back along the face and base of the cliffs at the upper edge of the snow or névé, under the influence of great diurnal changes of temperature. During the day, when melting occurs, water fills the cracks and joints of the rocks, which, freezing during the night, by its expansion pries off fragments from the cliff face, thus undermining it. Hence its perpendicularity and the fact that the cirque is confined to moderately temperate latitudes, where the sun has power enough to melt the snow and ice during the day. With regard to fiords, Geikie adopts Richter's explanation, that they are merely the drowned valleys of severely glaciated mountain tracts.

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While disclaiming any special treatment of modern geographical evolution, the latter part of the volume bears very directly upon it, and in his concluding chapter the author testifies to its importance in the following words:

"We do not doubt that when the history of the hydrographic systems of the continents has been better worked out, when the evolution of surface features has been more closely followed, our knowledge of land development will acquire a precision to which it cannot at present lay claim. Geologists will then also be better prepared to attack and perhaps to solve the largest problem of all—the origin of our continental areas and oceanic basins. Not that we can expect or desire that students should refrain from theorizing and speculating in that direction until the fuller knowledge we desiderate has been acquired."

To the general reader the book is a great relief after reading the work of modern geographers, in that the author has avoided the use of their abundant vocabulary of newly coined technical terms, and furthermore that he adds a glossary of the few exceptional words he does use. Further disregard of the more modern views in geology is found in the fact that in his table of geological systems he includes under the Palæozoic system all Pre-Cambrian or Archæan rocks.

Chandler's Encyclopedia; An Epitome of Universal Knowledge. New York: Peter Fenelon Collier. 1898.

Three flat quarto volumes, containing in all 1,710 pages, open and inviting columns in large type, a bewildering mass of cuts of every description, including portraits and representations of works of art, present at first sight the appearance of the perfect type of the genial family cyclopædia. This impression vanishes rapidly as we begin to examine the work more closely. We soon perceive that it is anything but a flimsy compilation. It is, indeed, a very serious production, a universal lexicon on a generous scale, executed with no little ability according to a skilfully contrived plan. A reference to the list of contributors strengthens our belief that a valuable accession has been made to the number of encyclopædic publications. The editor-in-chief is Prof. W. H. Chandler of Lehigh University. Among the specialists to whom the various departments have been assigned we may enumerate G. F. Barker (physics), M. Merriman (engineering), J. M. Baldwin and J. M. Cattell (both psychology), J. H. Hyslop (philosophy), J. O. Murray (European and American literature), C. L. Doolittle (astronomy and navigation), L. M. Norton (organic chemistry), F. M. Burdick (jurisprudence), F. R. Hutton (machines), Cleveland Abbe (meteorology), H. E. Krehbiel (music), Walter Camp (sports), W. H. Pettee (mineralogy and mining engineering), P. S. Michie (military science).

The editorial plan is to give something about every possible topic to which any questioner may have occasion to turn, and to omit as far as possible what is not essential to satisfying his curiosity. The work is as broad in its scope as it is condensed in its structure. According to a rough computation, there are no fewer than 50,000 separate notices (20,000 more than the ten volumes of Chambers's Encyclopædia), the articles occupying on an average but a few lines, and rarely exceeding a quarter of a page. One would naturally infer that this universal lexicon was a mere skeleton fabric, devoid of flesh and substance; but such is far from being the case. What strikes the reader is not the absence of characterization, but rather the prominence of this feature. It is refreshing, for example, to turn to the literary biographies, brief as they are, which often display unusual ability in the crisp, telling, and epigrammatic manner in which the position and merits of writers are summed up—in sharp contrast with the lack of characterization in too many of the biographies of such an ambitious and excellent work as the 'American Cyclopædia.' The plan has been to let the graver supplement the pen as far as possible, so that in its wealth of illustrations this work is quite unique. The cuts are of very unequal merit, not a few of them being below the standard which should prevail in a publication of this kind. Special stress, as we are informed in the preface, has been laid upon the scientific department, and the same thing is certainly true also of technology, which is unusually comprehensive. A general freshness and up-to-dateness characterizes the compilation. We find it to be especially full in contemporary biography, although, as is generally the case with cyclopædias, a number of the newest celebrities will have to wait for admission until another edition appears. There is a large array of such modern notabilities as Sir W. M. Conway of Himalayan fame, Roberts and Parker of the Canadian muse, Moszkowski, D'Albert, Humperdinck, Brüll, Mascagni, Hadley, Taussig, Brunetière, Lemaître, Vogüé, Henley, Le Gallienne, Dagnan-Bouveret, MacMonnies, Maartens, Maeterlinck, Verlaine, Wildenbruch, Zangwill, and others whom one is likely to look for in vain even in the most recent cyclopædias. The second edition will no doubt recognize the claims of such *fin-de-siècle* worthies as Bliss Carman, Dörpfeld, William Ramsay, Behring and Roux of antitoxine fame, Johanna Ambrosius, Reinach, Édouard Rod, James Lane Allen, and Ludwig Fulda.

In such a vast accumulation of facts and statements as we have before us the critic expects to find numerous flaws of one kind or another. They are indeed sufficiently frequent, but, taking the work as a whole, and bearing in mind the sins of even the more esteemed publications of its class, we are not disposed, after a cursory examination, to assail its general soundness. In a great many cases the pruning away has been done recklessly, almost savagely, as, for example, in "Gallia," "Boers," "Moravia," and "Copts." Under the heading "Gran," the main fact is omitted, that the town is the seat of the primate of Hungary. Under "Knights of St. John" no mention is made of the seizure of Malta by the English. One additional line accorded to John Morley would have permitted the insertion of his works on Voltaire, Rousseau, and Diderot. The condensing screws should not have applied so tightly under "Great Britain" as to exclude Manchester and Birmingham from the enumeration of the principal cities. The "save every line" policy has asserted itself too vigorously in the case of the more important geographico-historical notices, as the most generous allotment of space to that class of topics would not have swelled the bulk of the whole publication by more than a score of pages. The most condensed of condensed cyclopædias cannot afford to have an article on France without any allusion to the former possession of Canada and Louisiana, or any mention of the division into departments.

We shall point out a few of the shortcomings which we have met with in our brief survey. The statements regarding the date of the erection of the Great Pyramid given under "Pyramid" and "Cheops" are entirely at variance, the chronology of Brugsch being followed in the former case, and that of other Egyptologists in the latter. E. E. Barnard figures without his discovery of the fifth satellite of Jupiter. Under "Hamilton" (Mount) there is no mention of the Lick Observatory, and, strange to say, there is no such caption as "Lick Observatory." We discover that this institution has been relegated to the article "Observatory," a very valuable and up-to-date contribution, containing brief accounts of the principal modern observatories. Saint Paul's Cathedral figures along with the other "Saints," but the caption "Saint Peter's" is strangely absent, it being left to the reader to guess that his curiosity will be satisfied by turning to "Peter's." Berkeley, the seat of the University of California, has been accidentally overlooked. The Earl of Aberdeen is left resting on his Irish laurels without a mention of Canada. There are four various articles on "Gauge," dealing with subjects other than those pertaining to railways, but it is leaving too much to the reader's imagination to omit under this head references to "Broad Gauge" and "Narrow Gauge." Under the head of "Power of a Locomotive" we are told that the pull required to draw 1,000 tons on a level railroad is about 30 tons. This is an error for 3 tons, the resistance being but 6 pounds to the ton. A great blemish which runs through these volumes is the faulty orthography of foreign names, especially in the matter of diacritical marks.

While this cyclopædia leaves much to be desired, both on the score of completeness and of accuracy, we are sure that it will prove a valuable addition to every library, and most persons already in possession of a voluminous cyclopædia will find in this work a very useful adjunct. In a manifold way it supplements all other publications of its class. Those in particular who happen to own the "Monumental Britannica," and who think they have done their share in the way of hunting for needles in haystacks, will appreciate the value of this three-volume epitome of universal knowledge.

Zoroaster, the Prophet of Ancient Iran. By A. V. Williams Jackson, Professor of Indo-Iranian Languages in Columbia University. The Macmillan Co. 1899.

Zoroaster, or Zarathustra, in the original form, was born, according to Prof. Jackson, in western Iran about the middle of the seventh century B. C. The usual miracles took place on the birth of the founder of the new religion. He escaped death at the hands of demons and wizards, who foresaw his power and plotted against him in his youth. At the age of twenty he abandoned his father's house, and, retiring from the world, prepared himself for his ministry, which he entered upon ten years later.

On May 5, 630 B. C., an archangel revealed himself to Zoroaster, and carried him off to the presence of Ormazd, where he was instructed in religion by the Supreme Being himself. He then returned to earth and taught without success for ten years, during which time he enjoyed several visions; and

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was gradually perfected in knowledge. He was then tempted by the powers of evil, who could not avail against his armor of righteousness. He now gained his first convert, but it was the only one in ten years, and the Prophet felt discouraged. The Deity comforted him, however, and inspired him to continue in the good work. Two years later the great King of Balkh became a convert. Then success followed. The true church, when supported by the state, became irresistible. The court followed the King. As for the common people, they were soon induced to become converts: "When King Vishtâsp accepted the faith, he compelled his people to do the same, and he killed a large number of them until they adopted it"—whether dead or alive, is not recorded.

In 601 B. C. Vishtâspa (that is, Hystaspes, in phonetic value, but he was not the father of Darius), as a zealous convert to a new religion, objected to continue the payment of tribute to a heretic; so he discontinued the practice, and refused the moneys due to Arjâsp, his suzerain, who lived beyond the Oxus. Hell took sides with Arjâsp, Heaven with Vishtâsp. Arjâsp was beaten, but renewed the attack in B. C. 583. In this year and conflict Zoroaster was slain. The great King Vishtâsp survived him, as did his chancellor, who had written down the 'Avesta,' or Parsee Bible, from the teaching of the Prophet.

Between history and tradition there is seldom a fixed line. In the most favorable circumstances the line of demarcation is drawn more or less subjectively; when dealing with the remote past, one must be content to admit that there is practically no boundary at all. History is immersed in tradition, transformed by it, made part of it, like salt in water, till in the end history becomes tradition, and tradition is made historical. Especially is this true of accounts handed down in regard to striking personalities, and the most complete fusion of that which actually was and that which is said to have been is perhaps to be found in the Orient. Here fact and fancy are often indistinguishable. There is a Buddha of history and one of tradition, but who can separate them? Very wisely, as it seems to us, Prof. Jackson, in recounting what may be called the personal history of Zoroaster, has let tradition declare history, and has not attempted to dogmatize in respect of the native annals. In this book he has sketched Zoroaster's life, the founding of the Parsee faith, and the first struggles of the new church with the northern barbarians, letting tradition tell the tale unchecked, save for such critique as is needed to restrain hearsay within the bounds of probability, as those bounds must be set by a rational Occidental mind.

So clear and picturesque is the narrative that one regrets its sudden close. There was still much to write, and the history of the church to the time of the Sassanidæ would have made a fitting conclusion to the story of Zoroaster's first congregation. Prof. Jackson has preferred, however, to limit himself, as is implied by the title of his book, to Zoroaster's own time, and gives neither the history of the church, nor an account of Zoroaster's religion, the latter subject being reserved for another volume. As the traditional matter in regard to Zoroaster is somewhat meagre, there remains ample space, when the story is finished, to discuss in full the questions of date and geography raised in the text, and to add sundry copious appendixes besides. These contain, for example, all known allusions to Zoroaster in Greek and Latin authors, and all references to him in Armenian, Chinese, Syriac, and even Icelandic literature. In preparing these, Prof. Jackson acknowledges gratefully the assistance of Prof. Gottheil and Dr. Gray of Columbia, and Dr. F. Williams of Yale.

There is one slight defect in this book, and we speak of it here that it may be corrected in another edition. The appendixes are evidently meant for specialists. But for whom is the body of the work intended? If for those who have to be told that *c. g.* means *cæmpli gratia* and that this means 'for example' (p. xxiii), then why head the chapters with untranslated sentences in Greek, Sanskrit, Avestan, Anglo-Saxon, and Latin? More seriously and more important: how is the average layman (for whom, as we opine, the work is written) to know the value of tradition as given by Nask and Yasht and Dinkart? Who are the Sassanidæ (p. 105), and when did they live? How old is Pahlavi literature? One finds by accident on p. 84 the date of one work, but nothing more. What is the connection between the early and later texts so often cited, and what is their relative value as historical material? Two or three pages would have been enough to answer sufficiently all these questions, which cannot fail to perplex the average reader. It is high praise to say that in arrangement this is the only point we have noticed obnoxious to adverse criticism.

Prof. Jackson practically ignores the extreme view of the late Prof. Darmesteter in regard to Zoroaster's date. This is well. The whole theory of Darmesteter that the 'Avesta' belongs to a period after the Achæmenidæ is so untenable that no scholar can accept it. Other scholars, however, are not inclined to put so much faith in the traditional date of Zoroaster's birth as does Prof. Jackson. Prof. Oldenberg thinks the ninth century more probable than the seventh, and Prof. Tiele, a high authority, ascribes parts of the 'Younger Avesta' to a time "not much later than B. C. 800." In one of his latest utterances on the subject ('Zur Frage nach dem Alter des Avesta,' in the last number of the *Archiv für Religionswissenschaft*) Prof. Tiele emphasizes, and it seems to us rightly, the fact that the recognized literary form of Ahuramazda differs from the inscriptional form, and that the older, Mazda Ahura, or Ahura Mazda (a somewhat later order; in either case two distinct words meaning Wise Spirit), is the Avestan form, while the Persian inscriptions not only have the later Ahura Mazda, but have the two words combined into one inseparable Ahuramazda, which gives Ὡρομάζης, Ormazd. Now of the two the separated form, where each word is felt as an independent part, must be considerably more antique than the united Persian Ahuramazda. Hence the 'Avesta' represents a period which is at least older than that of the inscriptions of Darius, whereas Prof. Jackson would make Zoroaster himself live till the century of the Achæmenidæ. To this, Prof. Jackson can answer only that dialectical differences account for all changes. We cannot agree that dialect alone would explain the inversion and stereotyped combination here discussed. Again, a weighty argument against so late a date is the fact, also urged by Prof. Tiele, that the 'Avesta' represents stage by stage a long religious development, in which everything is at last reduced to rule and ceremonial precision. On the other hand, the precision of native tradition is really based on no more substantial ground than dateless Persian records. There are other reasons which might be presented, but enough has been said to show that Prof. Jackson's date is still open to discussion. Of this he is himself fully aware, and, as he cheerily says "the earlier the better," he would probably not object to a satisfactory proof of the inadequacy of his own theory.

The book is written throughout in a spirit of perfect fairness and with cordial appreciation of the value of the work of others. If in some regards it is not definitive, it is because no book on the subject can be so. It is, however, authoritative in the statement of facts, careful and discriminating in the judgments rendered, and very clear in the presentation of the many theories discussed; the work of a sound scholar and a credit to Columbia. To say that the book is from the Macmillan press is to certify to its admirable appearance.

Quellen des weltlichen Dramas in England vor Shakespeare: Ein Ergänzungsband zu Dodsley's Old English Plays. Herausgegeben von Alois Brandl. Strassburg: Karl J. Trübner. 1898. Pp. cxxvi + 667.

A supplement to Hazlitt's Dodsley has long been needed, and it is to the credit of Germany that one of her most distinguished scholars in the field of English studies has supplied a want which English and American scholars have neglected to fill. The period, moreover, in which the plays contained in this volume fall, is historically the most important and in many respects the least understood of all periods preliminary to Shakspere. The morality plays have added little to the gayety of nations, and the transitional dramas of the middle of the sixteenth century have as a rule but little literary merit; but Shakspere and his group follow close upon their heels, and the thing yet to be explained is exactly how they led up to Shakspere. For this purpose we need under our hands all the material still extant. Prof. Brandl's volume supplies most of the important pieces which till now had remained practicallly inaccessible. Twelve plays are printed, of which only six have been reprinted in recent times, and all of these (with the exception of "Mankind," recently printed in Manly's 'Specimens of the Pre-Shaksperian Drama') in very limited and generally inaccessible editions. Of the rest, two are from manuscript and appear in print for the first time. Three pieces of John Heywood's are given, completing the reprinting of that author's dramatic works. One novelty—the play of "Misogonus," given for the first time from the unique MS. in the possession of the Duke of Devonshire—for a certain crude *vis comica* it possesses and for certain suggested affiliations, seems to us of distinct historical importance, and worthy to compare with "Ralph Roister Doister" and "Gammer Gurton's Needle."

The dramas given represent certain groups suggested by the editor, who, on the basis of this grouping, discusses the plays in an admirably planned and generally learned and suggestive introduction. The result is, perhaps, rather materials to serve for a more

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general history than a complete essay on the early drama in itself; *that* we shall doubtless have in the author's promised continuation of Ten Brink's 'History of English Literature,' to which readers will now look forward with heightened expectations. The first step, we take it, in the construction of a history of a drama like that of the transitional period before Shakspere, in which personal genius and idiosyncrasy had so little play, consists in the classification of the dramatic material of the age and in the tracing out of the affiliations of separate plays with one another and with their Continental sources and analogues. This introduction, utilizing to some extent contributions of previous workers in the field, makes a very considerable beginning in this task. The editor also discusses questions of language and versification; and questions relating to the stage representation of these early plays receive the due attention which the historians of the English drama have long neglected to give to them. The editor's conclusions here, however, seem to us fragmentary and uncertain. The subject in general evidently demands further study at the hands of those specially interested in the early history of our drama. In his study of the sources of these plays, Prof. Brandl seems to arrive at no results which at all tend to confirm the random conjectures of Mr. Churton Collins as to the preponderating influence of the Italian drama on the transitional English drama of the sixteenth century—although, perhaps, more remains to be discovered than is here suggested in the way of some direct Italian source accounting for the Italian setting of "Misogonus." But did Mr. Collins, after all, discover a mare's nest?

There is a touch of the traditional German *Gelehrter*, with, perhaps, an echo of Klein and Ulrici and Schlegel, in Prof. Brandl's characterization of the Vice of the older drama as the embodiment of "mocking chance—the way of the world with all its self-irony and its frequent contradiction of the heroic will of man"! But in generalization Prof. Brandl is usually temperate and conservative, as well as illuminating, and often highly suggestive. We are not sure that all his points in regard to the affiliations of individual plays and groups of plays, and especially in regard to the influence of Bale and of Lyndsay, are altogether substantiated; and there are many other points of detail which we cannot accept without fuller discussion. The work as a whole, however, both introduction and texts, is a valuable contribution. The notes are distinctly inferior, showing a very imperfect knowledge of sixteenth-century English, and are unworthy of the editor's reputation.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, Prof. G. B. European History. An Outline of its Development. Macmillan. $1.40.
Bonsal, Stephen. The Fight for Santiago. Doubleday & McClure Co. $2.50.
Chetwoode, R. D. The Knight of the Golden Chain. Appletons.
Dimock, Susan W. Births, Baptisms, Marriages, and Deaths in Mansfield, Conn., 1703-1850. Baker & Taylor Co. $5.
Emerson, R. W. The Superlative, and Other Essays. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15c.
Fish, Williston. Short Rations. Harpers. $1.25.
Fossler, Prof. L. Rossegger's Die Schriften des Waldschulmeisters. Henry Holt & Co. 40c.
Halstead, Murat. The Story of the Philippines. Chicago: Dominion Co.
Johnston, T. B., and Robertson, J. A. Historical Geography of the Clans of Scotland. 3d ed. Edinburgh: W. & A. K. Johnston.
Letters of Robert Browning and Elizabeth Barrett, 1845-1846. 2 vols. Harpers. $5.
MacManus, Seumas. Through the Turf Smoke. Doubleday & McClure Co. 75c.
Orr, Rev. James. Neglected Factors in the Study of Early Progress of Christianity. Armstrongs. $1.50.
Patten, Prof. S. N. The Development of English Thought. A Study in the Economic Interpretation of History. Macmillan.
Riemann, Othon, and Goelzer, Henri. Grammaire Comparé du Grec et du Latin. Syntaxe. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Robinson, A. G. The Porto Rico of To-day. Scribners. $1.50.
Rogers, A. K. A Brief Introduction to Modern Philosophy. Macmillan. $1.25.
Ropes, J. C. The Story of the Civil War. Part II. The Campaigns of 1862. Putnams. $2.50.
Russell, J. E. German Higher Schools. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.25.
Sampson, George. The Works of George Berkeley. Vol. III. London: Bell; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Schmidt, Prof. F. G. G. Wildenbruch's Der Letzte. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 25c.
Seligman, Prof. E. R. A. The Shifting and Incidence of Taxation. 2d ed., completely revised and enlarged. Macmillan. $3.
Spencer, Prof. Baldwin, and Gillen, F. J. The Native Tribes of Central Australia. Macmillan. $6.50.
The Golden Book of Marcus Aurelius. [Temple Classics.] London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. 50c.
The Little Flowers of Saint Francis. [Temple Classics.] London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. 50c.
The Living Age. Oct.-Dec., 1898. Boston: Living Age Co.
Thackeray, W. M. The Adventures of Philip. [Biographical Edition.] Harpers. $1.75.
Thwaites, R. G. The Jesuit Relations. Vols. XXXV. and XXXVI. Cleveland: Burrows Bros. Co.
Warren, Prof. F. M. Molière's Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 30c.
Weir, Dr. James. The Dawn of Reason. Macmillan. $1.25.
Whipple, G. C. The Microscopy of Drinking-Water. John Wiley & Sons. $3.50.
Wilkison, F. The Story of the Cotton Plant. Appletons.
Winter, J. S. Wedlock. R. F. Fenno & Co. 75c.
Yeats, S. L. The Heart of Denise, and Other Tales. Longmans, Green & Co.

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